

The CLEARING HOUSE

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Changing Patterns in State Requirements for Teacher Certification

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The Clearing House

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EDUCATION-1981

By LARRY K. JOHNSON

THROUGHOUT HUMAN HISTORY it has been the folly of man to attempt predictions concerning the future. A fortunate few have been endowed with certain abilities which have helped them to be fairly successful, but a far greater number have made miscalculations or have been victims of some unforeseen circumstance which completely altered the situation. Therefore it is with certain reservations that I embark, crystal ball in hand, upon a series of prognostications concerning the composition, attitudes, structure, and problems of schools twenty years hence as indicated by present school trends and needs.

General changes in education. Most educators agree that there will be some change. Although one observer suggests that education has undergone major revisions at approximately thirty-year intervals, in general it is felt that change is a gradual process, with conservative schools eventually succumbing to public pressure for change. Just as change within our society has been accelerated, so will change in our school systems be accelerated, and by 1981 our present school structure will be outdated and replaced by a structure which is very different in nature.

To a much greater extent than today, there will be three separate school systems in the future. Public schools will continue to carry the greatest enrollments; however, in percentages both parochial-school and private-school enrollments will be increased. The latter school systems will closely paral-

lel the public school system in most developments, and they will flourish in heavily populated areas because they serve special purposes the public school cannot offer. More liberal attitudes by the public, more extensive federal school programs, and additional church backing will enable Congress to provide parochial and private schools with limited aid from the federal government, but there will be much controversy concerning the issue of full public aid to nonpublic schools.

Public education will continue to improve in all phases. Problems such as staggering enrollments, inadequate facilities, and teacher shortages will be partially resolved. The integration issue will remain a tender topic in southern society, but all major southern cities will have integrated schools and southern rural communities will be integrating gradually. There will still be many problems, critics, and some minority agitation concerning controversial issues, but overall the general public support and opinion of education will be much higher.

Federal aid without strings. One important key to change will be the application of federal aid to schools, supplementing existing state and local aid. Most educators recognize the restricted financial situations under which our schools now function. There is a definite need for additional revenue, which is available from the federal government. The barrier to federal aid will soon be broken and by 1981 the additional money supplied by federal support of education should

EDITOR'S NOTE

The year is just a few short of George Orwell's ominous and depressing excursion into the future but, happily, this story is different. Great educational changes are envisioned over the next two decades by our modern-day Nostradamus. If we are still around, we should like to read The Clearing House issues of that time and study those predictions which came true and those which were never fulfilled. In any case, it makes for interesting reading now. Our author, who leads us on this journey into the unknown, is instructor in the College of Education at the University of Georgia.

have eased problems concerning teachers' salaries, school facilities, financial support of needy students, and antiquated school systems. This is not to say these and various other economic problems will have been completely solved, but at least they will have been eased. The public will be taxed additionally but as suggested their attitudes will favor the improved education for America's youth.

For those who are concerned about federal control of schools, such an eventuality would appear unlikely from a historical point of view. Since the founding of the United States, emphasis has been upon a free public education for all. Until about 1820 school control and finances were largely the responsibility of private citizens and church groups. However, between 1820 and 1850, with the establishment of public schools, local and state aid became commonly accepted. The federal government will not undermine local control but rather will assume a position similar to the one the state now holds, supplying aid and setting only broad general requirements already met by an overwhelming majority of public schools. Special provisions may be made for some schools, particularly those of the South which have yet to integrate.

Consolidation will be facilitated by fed-

eral aid. The shrinking world will also mean a shrinking community. Thus local pride in very small communities will give way to a sectional or area pride. Only in sparsely settled areas, such as the West, will high schools have an enrollment of less than 500, and in most areas high-school enrollments will be greater than or approaching 1,000 students. These developments will be made possible by (1) the greatly increased population as anticipated and (2) more efficient modes of transportation, including a flying school bus.

The school plant and facilities. Public schools will be a more integral part of the community. The school will cover a vast area of land and will consist of one-story buildings arranged in campus fashion. Special walks will connect the various buildings with canopies protecting students from inclement weather. In cooler climates, flexible walls may be attached to the canopy for greater protection on winter days. In many communities the elementary units, intermediate units, secondary units, and college units will be located on the same campus.

The classrooms will be more comfortable and suited to the individual needs of the students. Better heating in the winters, air conditioning in the summer, and indirect lighting will be features of the 1981 classroom. Rooms will be soundproof to avoid outside distractions. Each school will have one or more large lecture rooms in which 150 students may attend lecture classes en masse. Classroom size will be flexible and each regular classroom will have at least one small conference room adjacent to it, in which small groups of students may work together. Some classrooms will contain soundproof partitions which may be used to divide the room for special grouping situations.

The chalk, blackboard, paper, and pencil will continue to be standard teaching aids, but books, exhibits, models, recordings, films, and many other aids and devices now undiscovered or underdeveloped will be considered necessary items of the classroom

equipment. By 1981 each classroom will have a hideaway movie screen, and many classrooms will have closed-circuit television, certainly the large lecture classrooms. Federal assistance will enable all schools to obtain extensive audio-visual aids at a minimum of sacrifice. Special subject areas will have a greater selection of equipment, such as recordings for foreign languages, tape recorders for speech, globes for geography and history, a computer for mathematics, and slides and viewers for biology.

Federal aid coupled with an attitude favoring community use will allow for a more grandiose school plant. Community use of school property will be widespread, although the school will not assume the responsibility for conducting community activities. Such activities will be sponsored by civic-minded community organizations and the city recreation commission. Community groups will use the school auditorium, school library, school park, school amphitheater, school recreation facilities, and other portions of the school plant. The facilities for physical exercise will be much more expansive, including more than one gym and several large outdoor activity fields. The physical education equipment will be more extensive so that facilities and equipment may be provided for almost any popular sport. Some of the larger schools may even have golf courses, swimming pools, and bowling alleys. It should be emphasized, however, that these facilities will not only supply the school but will supply, and be supported by, the actual community.

More and better teaching. One of the major problems facing schools of the future will be a teacher shortage due partially to increased enrollments, partially to lack of efficient recruiting, and partially to lack of recognition or status. By 1981, however, the teacher shortage should be resolving itself, aided by (1) the use of team teaching, (2) methods of mass teaching, and (3) increased salaries and improved status for teachers. More efficient staff utilization and newly es-

tablished teaching techniques will earmark 1981 teaching.

At the primary level horizontal team teaching will be very popular. The teaching team will consist of a leader, normally specially trained in language arts, and three or four assistants trained in subject areas such as mathematics and science, arts and crafts, and social community living. Such a team will teach a group of 100 to 120 children, integrating the various fields into a core program. This method will develop co-operation among members of the team and furnish opportunities for the development of intern teachers by providing valuable work experience and observations as part of a team of experienced teachers.

In some schools the horizontal team-teaching method will also be employed at the intermediate level. In general, however, the intermediate level, secondary level, and collegiate level will utilize vertical team teaching. This involves departmentalization into the various teaching areas and offers the advantage of teachers specifically trained for teaching in a given area. Thus all the teachers of a subject area will constitute a team whose function will be to provide for a continuous learning process in their area. This will eliminate the possibility of a child's receiving inadequate training at the intermediate level due to a teacher whose background is weak in a certain teaching area, and it will eliminate some of the needless review of previously studied material. It will also allow the teacher and pupil to develop understanding in a subject matter area together as the result of continuous association in the subject area over a period of two or more years.

The use of television in education will be of tremendous value in solving the teacher shortage. The classroom teacher will not be replaced, but inefficient teachers will be more vulnerable to exposure. Television will be particularly useful in presentations of general subject matter to large groups of students and will bring the efficient teacher

to a greater portion of the student body. It may be used quite effectively for both lecture and demonstration course material.

For schools which do not have closed-circuit television or which desire to provide course material for which television presentation is not practical, the technique of mass lectures will be used. Actually this form of teaching so parallels teaching by television that similar arguments and points may be made. It is important to mention that these forms of mass teaching will involve only that course material which is taught to large segments of the student body.

The classroom teacher will function in two capacities: (1) as instructor for classes with small enrollments and (2) as consultant or lab director for the various television and lecture courses. Most teachers will have at least four regular classroom situations or laboratory-consultant periods, and in addition each teacher will be expected to post the hours when he will be available for individual student consultation in his office or room. Trained and competent secretaries will handle grading and paper work, so that the teacher will have more time to devote to class preparation, individual student considerations, and leisure activities.

Although schools will continue and extend their professional guidance programs, the classroom teacher will be expected to assist in guidance counseling and may fulfill many guidance needs of the students. Particularly in the vocational departments students will receive help from personnel who are familiar with vocational guidance needs. Many instructors in the vocational fields will come directly from community businesses and may in fact be employers of students who are working in a co-operative training program.

Teachers' salaries, influenced by public opinion desirous of good teaching and subsidized by federal aid, will increase substantially. Improved salaries will attract good prospects into the teaching profession, while rigid selection methods will weed out poor

teaching prospects. Merit salary will reward the exceptional classroom teacher, but the position of the teacher in the teaching team will be the dominant factor in determination of salary. College training and years of experience will continue to play important roles in salary determination. The highest paid teachers will include the television teacher, the mass lecturer, and the teaching team leader. An eleven-month school year will make teaching a twelve-month occupation and help bring about an increase in yearly salary to represent truly the full year's work.

Changes in curriculum structure. Historically the emphasis of public education has been to provide a liberal education for all the children of America. The schools of 1981 will continue and extend this concept. Not only will all children aged four to twenty be provided with a public education, but adults and married students will find many public educational opportunities furnished them. Although the normal schooling process will terminate at age twenty or less, many adults will continue to improve their education, helping to create in America the most intelligent nation in history.

The public school will provide three curriculums to serve the varying needs of students: (1) the academic program, (2) the general program, and (3) the vocational program. About age twelve the child will be asked to choose the curriculum he prefers. The guidance department will play an important role in helping to determine which curriculum is best suited to the child's abilities and interests. This choice need not be final but there will be some requirements differentiating the various curriculums and making changes somewhat complicated.

The academic curriculum will supplant the present college preparatory curriculum and will be designed for those students interested in professional, technical, and managerial occupations. The academic curriculum will likely require four units of English, three units of one foreign language, five

units of mathematics and science, three units of social studies, and at least four units of the student's area of specialization.

The general curriculum will serve as a compromise solution for students who wish to choose neither the academic nor the vocational curriculum. It will be designed to serve students interested in clerical positions, salesmanship, and the fine arts. A probable set of curriculum requirements will include four units of English, two units of one foreign language, four units of mathematics and science, three units of social science, and at least three units in the student's area of specialization.

The vocational curriculum will serve those students who need only a general education and preparation for a chosen vocation. This program will be designed somewhat differently from the academic and general curriculums in that students will receive partial unit credit for actual participation on the job. Some basic academic requirements will exist for students under this program, including three units of English, three units of mathematics and science, two units of social science, and at least four units in one vocational field. Experience in several vocational areas will be encouraged.

Grade classification in 1981 will be much different from the grade classification by chronological age used in present-day schools. In order to adjust the school program to individual student differences, course work in the form of learning areas or achievement levels will be common in the various academic subject areas such as mathematics, reading, and science. The student will progress at his own rate in each field, going from one achievement level to the next when he has satisfactorily completed necessary requirements. This form of program will result in academically homogeneous grouping and will stimulate the student to excel, particularly if the student is proficient in one field. In less academic subject areas, such as social living and physical education, students will continue to be

grouped by chronological age, but otherwise heterogeneously.

Children aged four will begin a preschool kindergarten designed for school readiness procedures. There will be no definite duration for this experience. Thus when the child is ready for school, he will be enrolled at the primary level of education designed to last approximately three years or for students aged five to seven. The primary school will consist of a core curriculum composed primarily of the language arts, arithmetic, science, and arts presently taught in grades one to three. Progressing at his individual rate, the student, upon completing primary school requirements, will pass to intermediate school.

In intermediate school the child will be introduced to the various subjects as independent study areas and will begin his ascension of the various achievement levels in each area. In essence the intermediate school replaces grades four to eight of today's schools. The student should enter this stage at age eight and leave it at about age twelve. Because the intermediate school is designed specifically to handle individual differences it is to be expected that a student will complete one subject area of the intermediate school before he completes another. In such a case he would be partially enrolled in intermediate and partially in secondary school.

The secondary school represents today's high school and at times in 1981 will be referred to as the high school. It will consist of approximately four years of study for students ages thirteen to sixteen. It is during this period that the student will choose his curriculum, the basis of preparation for his life's occupation. Compulsory school laws will require that students finish the secondary school or attend school until they reach chronological age eighteen. Many students will terminate their schooling upon graduation from secondary school.

Trends in education indicate that many communities by 1981 will have a public collegiate level at least two years beyond the

secondary level. In the more populous areas, public education will be extended to four years at the collegiate level. In order to contend with these larger communities, small communities will have to subsidize students desiring collegiate education two years beyond the junior-college level. Thus the public education of a community in 1981 will extend from preschool to a college bachelor degree or approximately from ages four to twenty.

Changing emphasis upon subject matter. The emphasis of subject matter in 1981 will be its application to life circumstances. The basic needs of the student will be preparation for life in a most complex local and world environment. The student will face a much greater volume of material to assimilate with a greater need to understand what is being taught. Additional study areas may further complicate the school curriculum.

The field of social studies will receive the most attention by 1981. The student will be expected to have a strong background not only in national history, but also in world history and geography. All areas of the earth will be less than twelve hours away. Thus world sociology will be necessary for all world citizens. Political science will be considered of prime importance in preparation of diplomats to combat the Russian diplomatic machine. The social science department will also provide courses in American sociology concerning marriage and family, sex, and psychology.

Next to social science, mathematics and science will maintain a position of importance as school subject matter. Advancing technology will create so many new developments in these fields that public education will find it hard to narrow the gap. The effects of space travel upon the American way of life and the scientific race with Russia will continue to make the public aware of the need for developing young scientists and mathematicians.

As the world community shrinks, foreign language will undergo a serious revival of importance in the curriculum. English will continue to be an important member of the curriculum and more emphasis will be placed upon vocational subject matter. Speech and fine arts will remain relatively static in the curriculum with little emphasis upon this subject matter. To supply military training for men without seriously interrupting their lives, an initiatory training program resembling R.O.T.C. will be added to the standard curriculum, with the advantage that its graduates are draft exempt.

An interesting subject matter emphasis will be in health and physical education. Realizing that American youth are becoming fat and lazy, a restriction of federal aid may require a rigorous course in physical education and health each year for each student who is attending public schools from intermediate grades up. There will be decreased interest in interscholastic sports and an increased interest in intramural sports.

The people of 1981 will receive a more intrinsic and extensive education than present-day schools afford, but the complex world in which they live will require it. The school will be a major factor not only in their childhood but also in their adulthood. The school and community will labor hand in hand to provide an easier life, more pleasant atmosphere, and healthier outlook for the individual.

As has been seen the schools of 1981 could be very different from the schools of today. Many present-day problems which seem insurmountable will undoubtedly have been solved. The educators of 1981, however, will face new and different school problems in always striving to provide better education for American citizens, and undoubtedly in 1981 some educators will be looking to the future trying to get a glimpse of U.S. education, 2001.

LAY PARTICIPATION

A Guide for Educators in Working with Citizen Groups That Are Studying Curriculum Problems

By J. HARVEY LITTRELL

A RESURGENCE OF INTEREST in the public schools by lay people has been a trend in the past few years—a trend welcomed and encouraged by curriculum specialists. However, educators who have never worked with lay groups on curriculum problems should know that certain difficulties may be experienced whenever lay people become part of the curriculum study group. It is the author's belief that if school personnel are aware of these possible difficulties, they can more readily cope with them when they do arise.

Educators who have read the many recent articles concerning lay participation in groups studying curriculum problems may have a viewpoint acquired through rose-colored glasses. This viewpoint may easily become shattered in the first meeting with lay people. Unfortunately their experience

may cause educators to avoid attempting future group meetings involving lay participation.

My purpose in writing this article is to acquaint administrators and teachers with some of the difficulties which might arise, so that they will be prepared to cope with the troubles, get on with the real business, and discover that lay participation in curriculum problems may be of real value.

There is one basic principle upon which most curriculum specialists agree; if this principle is followed, many potential difficulties will never arise. The principle can be stated as follows:

Lay people should act in an advisory capacity for studying objectives and major changes in the curriculum, but professional educators should determine the methods to be employed in implementing the objectives or changes.

If this principle is understood by all participants, many difficulties may be avoided but not all of them. Some of them stem from other sources, and they may cause group meetings to be total failures if they are not anticipated and adequately dealt with by the school personnel. All of the difficulties described below have arisen during the author's experiences in working with lay groups.

Laymen's incomplete knowledge of the school program. Do not be surprised to discover that lay people are not cognizant of the local school's current program. This lack of understanding may be a reflection on the school's public relation efforts, or it may result from disinterest on the part of the lay people prior to their committee serv-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Many things have happened in the world of education since the Russians launched you know what. One of the more positive developments has been the reawakening of the general public to the problems of education on a local basis. Lay groups have sprung up studying school construction, teachers' salaries, curriculum development, and a host of other educational topics. Left unguided, these interested citizens can become a thorn in the sides of school people. The author, who is associate professor of education at Kansas State University at Manhattan, offers concrete suggestions for overcoming some of the difficulties involved when citizens participate in school matters.

ice. Regardless of the cause, lack of knowledge is prevalent, and it must be corrected.

Following the extensive publicity in newspapers about the need for more science and mathematics in the schools, the author was told in two different groups that the local schools should have more mathematics. In both schools five units of mathematics were being offered. These units consisted of general mathematics, the traditional sequence of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, and a senior mathematics course which included topics from solid geometry and college mathematics. The lay members of the group were unaware of the amount of mathematics being taught; they had been influenced in their hastily drawn conclusions by the nationwide publicity.

This situation would not have arisen if those responsible for the meeting had briefed the participants on the status of the curriculum. This indoctrination could have been done orally by various faculty members, or by a written brochure describing various aspects of the curriculum.

Reticence of lay people to express views. It may seem unbelievable to some educators that there can be reluctance on the part of lay persons to express their opinions. Particularly will this be true if members of the group feel intellectually, socially, or economically inferior to other members of the group. A real danger exists when these reticent persons follow the more voluble group members (including the professional educators), even when the ideas expressed are opposed to beliefs which the silent ones really hold.

A meeting of parents of young people interested in a general mathematics program was set up for the purpose of gaining from the parents their ideas about the types of mathematics needed by their young people. The meeting failed in its purpose because no ideas were expressed. This reluctance to speak was later analyzed by the professionals as being based on feelings of inferiority rather than a real lack of ideas.

This difficulty might have been alleviated by having small buzz groups. Individuals will usually express ideas to three or four others, but will hesitate to do so before a larger group.

Parents think in terms of their own children. A situation which is usually irritating to other parents as well as to the educators is the prevalent one in which parents wish to discuss school problems solely in terms of the needs and interest of their own children. This is a natural reaction, but these parents must be aided to understand the problems as being applicable to all children with their wide range of differences.

In a meeting devoted to a discussion of the curriculum in a junior high school, Mrs. X, the mother of an academically brilliant boy, stated that the school should immediately eliminate all industrial arts courses from the curriculum. She believed they were not worth while for her child; therefore, they were not worth while for any child.

Prejudices based on personal interests. Closely related to the difficulty just discussed is the one which arises because people allow prejudices based on personal interests to blind them to the needs and interests of other persons. It differs from the previous difficulty, because the prejudice is based on personal experiences rather than on interest in a child's experience.

In many schools part of the curriculum is in effect solely because of the personal interests of an influential person or group of persons who have managed to be quite vocal at decision-making times.

In group meetings the author has heard individuals demand that schools require of all pupils Latin for four years and speech every semester. Other individuals demanded the complete elimination of home economics, art, music, vocational subjects, and driver education. In each case the individuals were concerned only with their own prejudices. It is the task of the leaders of groups which have individuals causing difficulties of such nature to get the entire group

to consider how all ideas which are expressed would affect the different types of pupils enrolled in the school.

Halo effect of their own experiences. Because all of us tend to remember the pleasant experiences of our youth, we tend to put a halo around these experiences. (The little red schoolhouse was a lovely shade of red—or the grass was always greener in the good old days.) In practically every curriculum meeting with lay participation, you may expect to encounter individuals who want to revise the curriculum to correspond with the type of curriculum in existence thirty, forty, or fifty years ago. Formerly this desire to revert was motivated by economics, since the old curriculum was cheaper; more recently, however, because of the dissemination of materials from the Council for Basic Education, these individuals have become convinced that their rosy past was perfect.

The best antidote for this difficulty is to be prepared with research data or references to such data which will refute some of the reactionary statements.

Conclusions made before any objective evidence is determined. Be prepared for the layman who will either have a report all written or have one in his mind ready to be written at the first meeting of the group. This individual will have all the answers,

and he will consider time spent in any objective study a complete waste of time.

It is difficult to cope with such an undemocratic individual. The leader must help the group to see that each decision must be based on facts derived from research or the statements of authorities.

Recently the author was a member of a subcommittee which held one meeting at which only generalities were expressed. He was shocked a month later to find that the subcommittee chairman had submitted a final report which consisted entirely of the chairman's ideas, most of which had never been discussed by the subcommittee. Unfortunately, the report had been accepted without question by the chairman of the over-all curriculum group.

As the educational leader in the community, the administrator must be certain that any statements coming from the group or subgroups are the consensus of the entire group, and that this consensus has been reached after careful study of the question.

This article has not sought to disparage lay participation in curriculum study groups. Such participation is desirable, but it will be effective only if the educational leaders are aware that difficulties may arise and are prepared to meet these difficulties in a forceful, but democratic, manner.

Teachers and Superteachers

Within a framework of concern for developing leadership qualities in, and extracting notable contributions from, the gifted child, lies an alternative for teacher education. It is clear that just as all children in school will not, and cannot, become the leaders of tomorrow, so all teacher trainees (numbering in the hundreds of thousands if current needs are to be adequately met) cannot be expected to become either community or educational leaders. Perhaps what I am suggesting is that, in a mass

occupation such as teaching needs to be in the United States, there can be, in the ranks of teachers, adequate craftsmen with various skills on the one hand and educational leaders on the other. Both groups could function in the classroom, but the leadership group would carry both the burdens and rewards of additional responsibilities, and their period of preparation would, of necessity, be longer and contain some . . . different elements.
—DONALD R. THOMAS in the *Educational Forum*.

I Will Always Teach Unless . . .

By L. EDMOND LEIPOLD

TEACHING IS GENERALLY REGARDED as a profession that now possesses to quite a satisfactory degree the element of stability which was once so conspicuously lacking. Improved tenure laws, better salaries, more desirable working conditions, and a stronger feeling of professionalism have mitigated many of the feelings of dissatisfaction within the teaching fellowship which once impelled many members to desert their classrooms in favor of other vocations and professions.

Frequently it was difficult to determine the true reasons why these persons left their chosen profession. A young teacher of mathematics who happily accepted a position at a higher salary in industry might well have quit his teaching job for any one of a number of reasons, with the higher salary of the new position merely a concomitant benefit.

How do schoolmen and women who are now actively "on the job" view this matter? What influences might, in certain circumstances, be strong enough to impel them to leave their teaching assignments in favor of other positions?

In an attempt to answer this question, the writer sought the opinions of 200 men and women presently filling teaching or admin-

istrative positions. Each respondent was from a different rural or urban school system, with more than half of the American states represented. They were asked to take a look ahead, then to give thought to the question: What force which conceivably could sometime be exerted upon you might be great enough to induce you to leave your teaching position to go into some other line of work? Of the replies received, 187 were usable.

Rather surprising is the fact that there was quite general agreement on the several reasons that might impel them to quit their chosen profession to go into some other type of work. Money reasons headed the list, with 42 per cent of the group (more than twice as many as in the next category) giving this as the one probable cause for their leaving the teaching field.

Typical of the replies in this area was that of a small-town coach and history teacher in a midwestern state: "If I find that my salary is not sufficient to enable me to support my growing family as the years go by and the demands become heavier, I shall certainly consider seriously some other type of employment."

A somewhat similar statement was made by an eighth-grade teacher, a young man, married, with two children and a wish for two more, who added: "The situation will really have to be acute to force me out of the profession that I have chosen above all others."

A young man who now teaches science in a secondary school in the Ohio Valley voiced a sentiment that was expressed by several others when he said, "As long as I can maintain an average standard of living, I shall never quit teaching."

An elementary school principal in a state that ranks among the poorest in respect to

EDITOR'S NOTE

What are the factors which might prompt teachers to turn in their roll books and seek refuge in other occupations? Money? Tedium? Lack of security? Yes, all these and then some more were the reasons elicited from teachers and administrators, men and women, experienced and inexperienced, urban and rural school people. The compiler of these responses is principal of Nokomis Junior High School in Minneapolis and a frequent contributor to this journal.

teacher pay said, "I am now trying for my family's sake to get a job in another state where salaries are better. If this does not materialize, I may quit teaching. However, I sincerely hope not. I do not feel that I could ever be really contented in another type of work."

A warning was sounded by a young woman on the dangers of leaving a stable profession with tenure and going into industry where employment is often contingent upon favorable economic conditions. "Several years ago my husband left his mathematics position to go into industry at a much higher salary. After two years he was laid off. He got another job, but the uncertainty of it all finally induced him to return to the classroom. Now he is much more contented. The color of the grass on the other side of the fence can be deceiving when viewed from a distance."

Second among the reasons which were given was the one mentioned principally by women teachers and which may be given the inclusive label of "family responsibilities." Running both a home and a classroom puts a heavy burden upon those who do it, conceded these women. Thirty-five women, making up 19 per cent of the respondents, gave this as their first reason.

Said a mother of four: "Things are working out well now, but I can see signs . . . and when these signs become danger signals, I shall quit. My family *must* come first. . . ."

An Alaskan remedial reading teacher, as yet unmarried, took a look into the future: "First, I must find a Sourdough whose pockets are heavy with gold nuggets and who is willing to marry a schoolmarm. Then I expect that there will be several problem children about after a time. After they reach school age, I will go back to the classroom, if only to make sure that those problem children don't wind up in any remedial reading classes."

"I'm not married yet but I hope to be some day. When I am, I expect to keep right on teaching and will quit only if my hus-

band insists that I do. But by then my pay check will probably be big enough to convince him that I should *not* quit," stated a practical young lady from Texas.

Fear of failure was given by twenty-six respondents as the reason why they might some day quit teaching. This fear that they might not measure up concerned one person out of every seven who took part in this study.

"What if I get tired of doing the same thing day after day for so many years?" asked one young elementary teacher, who evidently had not yet discovered that true teaching does not involve doing the same thing day after day.

"If my job becomes tedious, shouldn't I quit?" inquired another teacher from a small town on the West Coast. Then she hastened to add, "It certainly has not become so as yet, but how can I tell how it will appeal to me twenty years from now?" (A score of years from now, I assured her, she might well be taking her groups on field trips to the Egyptian pyramids, to Antarctica, or perhaps to the mountains of the moon, and such trips should be anything but tedious!)

Nineteen persons, constituting 10 per cent of the group, gave reasons of health as ones that might compel them to give up teaching as a profession. Both men and women, young and old, were included in this group. Several of them indicated that it was *only* ill-health that might force them to quit, not that they even considered the possibility of it seriously.

A young man said, "If I ever quit teaching it will be because I am physically unable to continue. It is possible that I could earn more money elsewhere but I know of no other job that would give me the satisfactions that teaching does." As an afterthought he added, "Fortunately, my wife feels the same way about this as I do."

"Coaching is to me the finest of professions. Only ill-health could make me quit it," replied a young man, who probably did not

have enough experience to find out what a couple of losing seasons might do, also.

These four reasons encompassed 167 cases, representing 85 per cent of all of those who replied. The reasons given by the remaining twenty-seven men and women varied. Eight were of the opinion that they would teach until they reached retirement age, this sentiment being expressed in varied ways.

"They will have to throw me out," said one adamant teacher, while another said flatly, "I just do not intend to quit. Amen." And a third one said, in similar vein, "What's wrong with setting fifty years as a teaching goal? That should take me right up to retirement age!"

Six teachers said that teaching as a profession was held in such low repute in their communities that they might some day leave it for a more appreciated profession, while only three, one teacher, one superintendent, and one coach gave "pressures" as reasons for quitting. Three more in similar vein gave "lack of security" as their reason for eventually seeking other jobs, while two men were of the opinion that lengthening the school term to eleven or twelve months, thus depriving them of their free summers, would be sufficient reason for them to quit, though they did not say what jobs in industry they could get that would give them this much time for themselves.

These varied reasons accounted for all but six that were given by the almost 200 men and women interviewed. What about these six persons? What were their individual reasons for some day considering leaving their line of work for some other profession or vocation?

One middle-aged woman frankly admitted that only "romance" could ever take her from the classroom. "And if this happens, I want to be free to devote all of my time to the happiness of my husband," she unselfishly proclaimed.

"As long as there are children to be taught, I shall remain a teacher," said the second of the six. "So only the lack of a position can force me out."

The third, probably looking back upon an unhappy personal experience, declared that only "the unethical practices of fellow teachers" could impel her to leave her classroom, not clarifying the statement further, while the fourth, a woman, stated that her husband's position as a businessman in the community imposed such heavy social demands on her that she felt she would soon have to give up her classroom activities, regretfully.

Also in a category by herself was the woman who said that soon her family would be grown and gone from home and then with lessened financial needs she might well consider retiring from active teaching.

Finally we come to the last one of all, one who also was alone in his category. He was a secondary teacher of the social studies in a medium-sized range town, a serious young man with a wife and three children.

"I love teaching," he said, "but the administrative inefficiency and incompetence in the school in which I work are almost unbearable. I shall change either locations or jobs, probably the latter."

That only one out of almost 200 persons found serious fault with his administrator is in the writer's opinion one of the most significant facts disclosed by this study.

The purpose of our schooling is to speed the process by which the child learns to become a man of learning in freedom.—R. FREEMAN BUTTS in *Teachers College Record*.

Must High-School Teachers Have Nonprofessional Assignments?

By
WILBUR J. SWITZER

A CHAIN IS ONLY AS STRONG AS THE WEAKEST LINK; hence any secondary school faculty will be only as strong as the weakest member. The practice of assigning various members of a faculty to teach in areas where they are not professionally prepared can hardly strengthen a faculty nor can it strengthen the position of the profession. Even worse, perhaps, is the fact that a significant number of students are being deprived of qualified instruction during a part of their secondary training.

To staff a secondary school is a difficult task at best. A great number of items must be taken into consideration; yet no amount of rationalizing can displace the fact that every morning in a number of classrooms throughout the United States partially qualified, nonprofessionally prepared people will be attempting to teach.

The major argument for this educational tragedy seems to be budgetary limitation. The question seems to be: how can you afford to hire a teaching specialist in a subject area if you have only enough students for one class period per day? This situation ob-

viously arises often in the smaller secondary school systems. But even in the large urban and suburban school systems, where the majority of secondary students are enrolled, the same situation may be found. What is the justification offered here? Most of the time the answer will be found in "rounding out the schedule." It is far easier to place a good teacher in a teaching situation for the sake of the schedule than it is to build the schedule around the major and minor preparations of the teaching personnel.

To use a qualified major in, say, the social sciences, to teach a period each of Social Studies I, English III, Spanish I, and Algebra II is about as justifiable as using a local member of the bar association to perform an appendectomy. The results would be equally disastrous.

The argument here, of course, is that a superior teacher can teach anything well. Perhaps the superior teacher has an excellent technique and is well organized; yet it is hard to believe that a person can keep up with current research, trends, and developments in four fields of preparation. Quality teaching demands time for preparation.

There appear to be two obvious ways to alleviate the misassignment of teachers. First, administrators must give careful consideration to the minor teaching preparation of their personnel. This should be most helpful in the smaller high schools. The second way is to evaluate the curriculum in terms of subjects necessary for college preparatory and terminal students. Perhaps the time is way overdue to examine courses listed as interest subjects. Are interest subjects necessary? Are the public schools con-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is a short article with a punch. The major point of contention is that the courses offered by a school should be determined by the major and minor specializations of the available teachers rather than by arbitrary assignment to teachers of courses previously developed. The author is director of student activities and teacher of United States history and geography at Los Altos (California) High School.

tinually taking on more responsibility for total education than they should? Any number of secondary school teachers would state that it is not in solid subjects, as a general rule, that disciplinary problems arise. Rather, they seem to be more prevalent in teaching areas that are not required and in which the work hence does not have to be made up. Many interest courses are shallow in content matter; moreover, they are used for dumping grounds and thus any teacher should be able to "fill the bill." If a course is worth offering, it is worth using a qualified instructor. More stringent schedules would mean harder work, less of an antiacademic attitude, and reduced cost.

Is there someone to blame for this situation?

Blame, of course, is not so important as doing something to rectify the situation. But we as teachers, as administrators, and as

parents are all to blame. Teachers are to blame for not refusing to take assignments that they are unqualified to teach. Administrators are to blame for putting schedule expediency before quality teaching. Parents are to blame for not keeping up with what is going on in the schools around them.

Scheduling and teacher assignment are generally considered administrative functions; yet one may certainly question how much quality teaching is really being done on the basis of the present teacher-assignment practice. Molding young minds for the world of tomorrow is an exacting job and one that should be done only by the most qualified personnel. There is no way to explain away a second best situation. Until teachers and administrators work out a more suitable situation in terms of assignments, teaching does not deserve to be called a "profession."

After Such Pleasures

(A Counselor's Day)

By THOMAS J. KRUPA

Hazel Park High School, Hazel Park, Michigan

I have been acquainted with the plight;
And listened to, and gone through again;
Outlasting the longest tales of fright.

I have heard the saddest boyhood pain;
And passed near young girls in their fun;
Seeing eyes drop that could not explain.

I have sat still and heard the young heart
beat,
When deep inside, an uninterrupted sob
Reached me from its lonely retreat;

Not so much to tell me, or say, "I'll try."
Though closer still, something of the will;
Young faint hope beneath the sky

Said that somehow things were now clear,
And there was not so much to fear.

School Athletics on Trial

By ISADORE "SPIN" SALARIO

FROM THE TIME SPORTS RECEIVED NATION-WIDE POPULARITY in our schools and colleges in the early decades of the twentieth century, adverse publicity has prevailed relative to low standards, professionalism, rowdiness, and overemphasis in athletics. Today these same criticisms exist with greater intensity. In addition, with emphasis being centered upon the pursuit of excellence in the academic disciplines, school athletics are considered to be of little value to the curriculum and are in jeopardy of being eliminated from the total school program.

What has been most disheartening is that not only have lay people, school administrators, and academicians deprecated competitive athletics but physical educators as well. Certainly, many of the evils that have been associated with athletics are justified. We may well ask, however, whether athletic activities are inherently evil or whether those in authority are perhaps responsible for the

problems that have occurred. It appears that those who have been unduly critical do not have a clear conception of the vital part competitive athletics play in our culture.

The dual purpose of this article is (1) to justify competitive athletics in our schools; and (2) to identify the conditions upon which an effective athletic program must operate. Although this discussion will refer only to high-school athletics, the values of interscholastic athletics which it enumerates are applicable to the justification of any competitive sports program.

Values of Interscholastic Athletics

Transmission of cultural heritage. A prime function of education is to transmit the cultural heritage of our society. Athletics, an integral part of the educational program, are a vital expression of the American people. Even the colonists, who spent endless hours toiling in the fields under adverse living conditions, found the time and energy to engage in sport. Despite the fact that colonial church and civic leaders stigmatized most forms of sport as sinful and wasteful of time, interest in sport flourished. In the late nineteenth century our society witnessed a rapid expansion of a variety of sports resulting from improved transportation, attainment of higher standards of living, and increased leisure time. More and more Americans enjoyed taking part in sport whether as players or as spectators deriving pleasure from observing others perform.

Today sports have become a traditional aspect of leisure-time living. They have survived despite the many restraints advocated by opponents. They have survived because ours is a free-enterprise society which accepts competition as desirable if conducted under standards of fair play. Such acceptable traits and qualities are reflected in the

EDITOR'S NOTE

With the recent release of the White House report on the fitness of American youth, the role of athletics in our high schools today may take on a more important meaning. The author, who is an assistant professor of physical education at Chicago Teachers College, presents a strong case for the retention of athletics as an integral part of the secondary-school curriculum. The development of athletic prowess is subordinate to the cultivation of desirable democratic attitudes and social traits as the outgrowth of a well-conceived and executed program of athletics. What is needed in education today is a better balance between athletics and the non-athletic offerings and a new perspective in approaching this particular problem.

following slogans: "Let the best man win," "Don't give up until the last man is out," "The will to win," "Sacrificing self for the welfare of the team," "All for one and one for all." These and many more are characteristically American and are expressed in American sport. It is these reflected qualities and traits, that have been transmitted through the ages, which have contributed to making America a great, free nation.

Expression of democracy. In what other facet of our culture have the principles of democratic living been expressed as vividly? Groups or individuals competing against one another under common rules and regulations are analogous to the democratic principle of equal treatment for all within the law. Competitive sports, ranging from tennis to football, have also furnished a common interest for both participant and spectator which has been responsible for fostering wider social experiences, greater unity and understanding, and closer acquaintanceship among the various socioeconomic groups, races, and religions. The playing fields are equally available to the sons of laborers as to the sons of industrialists. The Educational Policies Commission took cognizance of this fact, when it stated: "Athletics may also exemplify the value of the democratic process and of fair play. Through team play the student athlete often learns how to work with others for the achievement of group goals. Athletic competition can be a wholesome equalizer. Individuals on the playing field are judged for what they are and for what they can do, not on the basis of the social, ethnic, or economic group to which their families belong."¹

With our society being threatened from without and from within, we need the spirit of sport in our democracy—i.e., complete co-operation, fair-mindedness, sacrificing of selfish interests for the common good, and a

respect for the rights and privileges of others.

Development of desirable social traits. Athletics offer an opportunity for the development of such desirable social traits as co-operation, perseverance, loyalty, courtesy, initiative, leadership, followership, and sportsmanship. True, these traits can be learned in other school activities. However, no school activity other than competitive athletics is performed under an emotionally charged environment involving large cheering crowds, wide publicity, intense rivalries, idolatry, awards, and game tensions, where the true character of players and spectators can be challenged and developed. Under these conditions, standards of conduct such as playing the game fair, trying and trying again, being a graceful winner and a good loser, become meaningful implications for human achievement. I would be remiss if I did not mention the false values which could exist under these same conditions if undue pressure was placed on winning at all costs. Undesirable traits such as deceit, low standards of health and eligibility, and unsportsmanlike acts might then be condoned. I reiterate: Which would be to blame—the activity or the administration of the activity?

Contribution to educational objectives. One need not stretch the imagination to any extent to realize that an effective interscholastic program contributes to such educational objectives as health, citizenship, ethical character, worthy use of leisure time, and vocational preparation. In addition, competitive athletics provide a healthful, emotional release of student anxieties resulting from academic pressures. When this is accomplished, it is possible that the individual will be prepared to pursue his scholarly tasks with greater vigor. The high-school adolescent, in trying to make adjustments to resolve academic tensions, will use whatever is of value in the environment to relieve pressure and maintain internal equilibrium. Many individuals are able to maintain internal equilibrium by meeting their

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *School Athletics* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1954), p. 4.

psychological needs in academic achievement; others must utilize athletic activities, either as players or spectators. If the environment is devoid of socially approved resources, i.e., democratic leadership, adequate facilities and personnel, planned and diversified athletic activities in which an individual may have the opportunity to identify with and achieve recognition and self-esteem, he will seize upon whatever resources are available—i.e., mores of the gang leading to truancy, stealing, lying, and vandalism—and will fall away from the accepted customs of the social organization. The implication for having a well-rounded school curriculum meeting the needs of all becomes quite apparent.

Opportunities for the gifted athlete. Educators are more concerned with meeting the needs of the gifted child than at any other time in the history of education. It has been discovered that the highly intelligent child is not challenged to his fullest capabilities in the average classroom of today. Consequently, enriched and accelerated programs are being planned. The physical educator, however, has made allowances for the gifted athlete by including competitive athletics in the physical education program. This program gives boys opportunities to display and improve their physical skills for all to appreciate and emulate. The intention never was to have the interscholastic program limit the opportunities needed for most individuals in the intramural and physical education class program. All children and youth should share in the benefits derived from a well-rounded physical education program which considers the special needs of the gifted and the common needs of all. If this goal is not being achieved the fault is certainly not the interscholastic program. A statement by the President's Council on Youth Fitness had other implications. It recognized that professional leadership was sorely lacking, and that present facilities for physical education and recreation programs were inadequate or nonexistent in a great

many schools and communities throughout the country.²

Contribution to school spirit. School spirit is very real. Its existence or nonexistence can easily be recognized. When psychological needs such as self-esteem, recognition, belongingness, status, and participation are satisfied for the student body, faculty, and members of the community, such qualities as enthusiasm, zest, zeal, solidarity, and happiness are reflected in all facets of the total school program. These qualities result from shared experiences such as those found in an effective interscholastic program. Contrary to general belief, interscholastic athletics with their many ramifications contribute to the needs of far more individuals than just the "few gifted players." Consider the opportunities involved for those participating in the assembly program, school band, school newspaper, cheer squad, marching group, pep club, parents' booster club, school awards banquet, sales promotion, team managers, and interested spectators. In addition, the anticipation and excitement which permeate the school and community prior to the big game, the homecoming parade and dance, and the crowning of the queen contribute to lasting memories. These are the experiences that aid in the transmission of school tradition, and a feeling of loyalty to a school to which one is proud to belong.

Guiding Principles for Accomplishing Values

The foregoing values can be accomplished in the interscholastic athletic program if the following guiding principles are attained:

(1) The interscholastic program should be an integral part of the total educational program and under the complete and direct control of those responsible for that program. Attention should be given to the accepted administrative principle that when a

² The President's Council on Youth Fitness, *Fitness of American Youth* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1956), pp. 4-6.

diversity of tasks exists, authority should be delegated by the administrator commensurate with the assignment of responsibility.

(2) Sound standards relative to health, safety, and eligibility are essential for satisfactory athletic competition.

(3) The democratic process is recommended. An athletic council should be responsible for making decisions within the framework of established policies.

(4) The coach should be a full-time physical education teacher, democratically oriented, qualified to guide American youth.

(5) The interscholastic program should be centrally financed so that it will not be dependent upon gate receipts and school-sponsored fund-raising activities.

(6) The school should provide proper facilities and equipment in order to maintain a sound physical education class program, to provide a diversified intramural program, and to sponsor an effective interscholastic program.

(7) The school should assume the responsibility for promoting the educational values inherent in effective athletic programs and interpreting them to the community.

The listing of these principles is merely suggestive, but any school administration that adopts these "rules of action" has laid the foundation for attaining the values which are inherent in an effective interscholastic program.

Book Reviewing

By ARNOLD LAZARUS
University of Texas

Synopses of the novels read for school "reports" are available in such handy sources as Keller's *Reader's Digest of Books*, Haydn and Fuller's *Thesaurus of Book Digests*, *Book Review Digest*, to name a few which are well known. But even if a student does his own synopsis, he isn't really reviewing a book.

As an alternative, have him bring to class the book that he has read and have him read aloud to the class three or four passages illustrating answers to one such question as: "What is the author saying in this book?" or "What does he seem to

be saying or implying?" or "Why do you think that he has or has not succeeded?" or (for fiction) "What is the chief character like?" or "What change, for better or worse, does the chief character in the book undergo?"

From a short (five to six minutes) reading like this, the teacher and the class can see whether the reviewer has really read the book and with what understanding or lack of it. Before long, students who review books in this way find that they cannot afford to sell themselves short; that they must, instead, sell the teacher and the class.

THE RELUCTANT STUDENT

By EDWIN MINGOIA

"HAZEL IS ALWAYS FORGETTING HER PENCIL, books, and other supplies," her tenth-grade social studies teacher remarked. "She never pays attention in class. Furthermore, she seems more concerned with talking to boys in class than she is about her failing grades."

Because Hazel eschewed her social studies and English texts, she was considered by her teachers as having a "reading" problem. Consequently, she was referred to me, a reading consultant.

Although I do not believe in making a fetish of tests just to sanction diagnosis with an aura of pseudo science, I, nevertheless, gave Hazel several tests. Her reading, I found, was on the level of an average seventh grader. Although Hazel was hardly a completely disabled reader, this tenth grader did not have the background and reading vocabulary essential for understanding her intellectually written texts. To make matters worse, neither did Hazel care.

Hazel, however, was not completely unconcerned about her teachers' opinions. For instance, when an anxiety-provoking book

report was due, this poor girl would mysteriously develop a cold and stay home.

Further tests revealed that Hazel's listening comprehension to even the most scholarly material was surprisingly knowledgeable, and her speaking vocabulary was excellent. This girl was far from being a so-called nonverbal person, who is deficient in all the language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. This intelligent girl was only deficient somewhat in reading and more so in writing. Her writing deficiency heightened her plight when, on the rare occasion that she made sense out of her text, she failed the written examination. I believe there should be more opportunity available to evaluate students such as Hazel through oral examinations, verbal reports, and discussions. But high-school teachers with more than a hundred students on their rosters say this is impossible.

All the tests confirmed what her teachers knew already: Hazel was not achieving to the level commensurate with her intelligence. Unlike her sister, two years her senior, who received all A's, Hazel was pretty and popular and chose to direct her intelligence in channels far removed from the pages of history and geography.

If the scholarly sister was working on school tasks that would further her toward success in college and ultimately in a career of teaching, business, social work, or nursing, Hazel was also working on her own set of developmental tasks. Some students failing in the educational system compensate by striving to insure success in the domestic sphere, not a mean achievement to judge from reports of divorce courts and marriage counselors. Such a girl was Hazel.

What were the activities Hazel engaged in out of school? One hour was spent in grooming activities, such as brushing her hair,

EDITOR'S NOTE

This vignette of school life has a familiar ring for most of us. It is concerned with the nonscholarly student—the disinterested one. This particular type is not recalcitrant, simply reluctant, occupying space and biding time until the day of release. There is an enormous challenge for the school to develop a course of study which may have some meaning and interest for these students, who, after all, will some day join the ranks of participating citizens. The author who relates this experience for us is a reading consultant for the Elk Grove, California, schools.

manicuring, and studying her make-up. Another hour was usually devoted to comparative shopping—comparing prices and quality of clothing. This was sufficient to make an afternoon well spent, although nothing was purchased. About an hour and a half was spent televising, especially dance programs. Sociable, she spent another half to one hour on the telephone. Although too much housework, especially washing and ironing, was considered somewhat beneath a girl's dignity in Hazel's teen-age circle, baby-sitting was respectable, and in this she occasionally engaged.

Instead of preoccupying herself with questions of grammar or the Monroe Doctrine, Hazel wanted to know, "How do you talk to boys?" "How do you dance the latest step?" "How do you tell good quality clothing from poor?"

Unfortunately there were no courses in our high school that would meet Hazel's need to know about problems involved in shopping, budgeting, nutrition, etiquette, and getting a job—in short, practical problems that even college graduates are confronted with but for which they have never found the answers.

As a reading consultant I am concerned with a student's growth in reading and writing, and I believe that each student deserves to make linguistic growth regardless of his ability. But for the Hazels who do not want to be scholars, there are other teaching approaches to make them good readers than the single-text course.

My fifth interview with Hazel revealed that even seemingly nonacademic students can be reached. Unlike her sister who spent two hours a day reading and studying physics, trigonometry, and Shakespeare, Hazel spent at best fifteen minutes on reading, and this mostly skimming a movie magazine or the cartoons in the newspaper. Hazel, however, confessed she was dissatisfied with reading movie magazines. In fact, she was very much concerned with the place of

music, art, and literature as a means of spending leisure time.

It would be difficult to interest this girl, with ambitions to become a housewife, in the works of Shakespeare, Bacon, and Dickens. Yet I am sure that among the wealth of modern-day literature, there are some readings—with aesthetic and moral values—that would fit Hazel's interests.

I must confess Hazel's case was a source of embarrassment to me as a reading consultant. To the question, "What is wrong with Hazel?" I could only reply, "Nothing."

Hazel's case started me thinking, and because of it I realize that the program of our present-day traditional high school is in need of some overhauling. I can envision Hazel as a conscientious housewife, not devoid of sensitivity or refinement, who will be reading women's magazines and books on practical questions of living that schools left unanswered.

It is true that Hazel was admitted to a reading improvement class, but no "packaged" course is going to make up for her all the skills and attitudes not learned during the first ten years of school. The development of literacy is a highly complex process which integrates the accumulated effects of many years of training; consequently, it is erroneous to put faith in a course purporting to bring a student up to a certain level. Reading deficiency is an index, more than any other, that the student is resisting the objectives and values inherent in the study of academic subjects such as English, social studies, and science.

If a moral can be drawn from Hazel's case, it is that there is no simple answer in helping the unsuccessful student. When an educational system attempts to standardize its program, there are some students who for one reason or other cannot jump over the numerous assignment hurdles. Perhaps some day schools will be able to meet the challenge such reluctant students as the Hazels present, to make study interesting for them.

We Should Start Each Day of School with a Prayer

By
WILLIE MAE CARY

THE COGENCY WITH WHICH Allen Berger argues in his February *Clearing House* article, "Should We Start Each Day of School with a Prayer?" forces me to agree with his premise that prayer mechanically said is of no spiritual value at all. I concur with him when he asserts that the mere mouthing of prayer destroys the benefit for which prayer is intended. I cannot agree with him, however, when he suggests that if there is the slightest doubt whether prayer is sincere that it be discontinued. My contention is that it becomes the duty of the teacher to make prayer sincere. I am convinced through more than ten years of teaching in the public schools of Texas that it can be done.

Students must be motivated to pray rather than forced to do so. Hundreds of books have been written in the field of education concerning the virtue of conditioning the human mind to absorb certain informational data. It is generally assumed and accepted that unless the proper atmosphere is created, absorption will either be rather diffi-

cult or completely impossible. Even football coaches dare not start a football game without a reasonable warm-up. If this is important in such activities as reading, writing, spelling, and playing football, it should be even more important in the matter of prayer. The soul of a child is far more important than the touchdown he will probably run or the masterful curve of penmanship he will probably master. If it is important that the scene be set for his mind to develop, it is important that the scene be set for his soul to develop. Develop the mind at the expense of the soul and you father a monster.

Children cannot be expected to rush in from the early morning play and recreation and assume a prayerful attitude because the administration allots time for the prayer. A brief quiet period of about five minutes usually bridges the gap of play and seriousness. Permit the mind to make the transition from noise to quietness. During this quiet period, students can be admonished to think of any problem with which they have been grappling, any private worry or difficulty, any great desire or wish, any question to which they desire an answer or help. They can be encouraged to bow their heads and silently tell God about it. If they have any special blessing for which they are grateful, any special happiness that has come their way, they can be persuaded to offer thanks. Sometimes it helps to let them share orally some of the good things that have come their way. Even the most timid have joined in this exchange in my classes. After the oral exchange, they can be asked, not told, to bow their heads and pray. I am convinced that it works. Too often my heart has been made to sing by one of my students confid-

EDITOR'S NOTE

When Allen Berger's article, "Should We Start Each Day of School with a Prayer?" appeared in the February, 1961, issue of *CH*, several of our readers responded critically to the thought advocated by this author. Then came this retort written by Mrs. Cary, who teaches English at the Ralph J. Bunche High School, Crockett, Texas. Since it is the attitude of prayer and not prayer itself which is being contested, we have presented both sides of the question. The defense rests.

ingly declaring, "My prayer was answered today." I might hear one say, "I didn't get what I asked for, but I was glad to be able to tell someone about it who I felt could help me." It isn't easy to determine internal responses by external reactions, but from the reactions of my students through the years, I'm convinced that prayer means something to them even when administration accepts this as a traditional practice.

Mechanization of prayer can be decreased by variety of procedure. Monotony can destroy the appeal of practically anything. The young mind is more easily bored than the more mature mind. Since the matter of drill and routinization is repulsive in many developmental activities, it can be even more repulsive in the matter of prayer. The efficacy of prayer can be maintained by varying the procedure. One day, as I have pointed out in the preceding paragraph, silent prayer can be employed. Another day, sentence prayer can be used. Each student is invited to utter one complete sentence prayer. For other days, students may be scheduled to pray according to sex. All the boys may pray

and then all the girls. Or a girl may pray and a boy will alternate. One day they may follow an alphabetized schedule where only one student will pray. Another day I pray and then finally, the Lord's Prayer may be said. With this variation throughout the month, my students manifest no obvious indications of boredom or "mouthing of prayer." They seem to look forward to the prayer period. They seem anxious to pray and they constantly discuss the benefits which they have received from the morning prayer at school.

I believe that rather than surrender to the possible doubt that the morning prayer at school is not effective, we as educators should remove the doubt. We should do this by using some of the same ingenuity and effort we expend on teaching subject matter. We should create a prayerful atmosphere and keep prayer alive in our classrooms. If we assume the responsibility for the beneficialness of other activities in our classrooms, prayer should be no exception. Making the daily prayer meaningful is just another of the many challenges of teaching.



Education on the Wide Screen

It seems clear that we have reached a stage in the history of mankind when very important parts of our human arrangements must be on a world-wide scale. What might be called cultural nationalism is educationally often a very good thing, but political nationalism, except in terms of sensible devolution, is bound now to become increasingly a thing of the past if we are to survive. The changes in our outlook and habits that are necessary for this to succeed cannot come about unless in our education we decide to prepare young people for a life of this kind as we have hitherto prepared them

for a life limited by national allegiances. To make these changes will require great thought and practical educational skill.

In attempting this we have on our side the perennial tradition of learning, that it is shared in and belongs to mankind as a whole.

The distinctive educational task of our time is to develop and broaden this tradition so that it passes down from the scholars and the scientists, the artists and musicians, to the ordinary teacher and the ordinary boy and girl.—H. L. ELVIN in the *School Review*.

School Counselors Must Understand Current GUIDANCE TRENDS

By HERMAN J. PETERS

The responsibility for democracy's actions sometimes looks very diffuse, but actually it is nothing of the kind. The democracy that we talk so much about is not an anonymous mass of faceless strangers. It is ourselves. What the democracy finally decides to do is made up of the decisions of you and me and our friends. Broad as democracy is, it has no room in it for the prayer of the Pharisee, who thanked God he was not as other men were. What democracy does is what WE do. We are part of that faceless and incomprehensible multitude. (Catton, p. 143)

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR HAS SOME VERY DEFINITE RESPONSIBILITIES pertinent to the guidance trends in the sixties. In fact, each professional guidance worker has, through his career choice, made a commitment to be alert to his role in the changing guidance scene. As Catton has stated, it is what each one of us does that makes a difference.

That change is always with us imposes its consideration. To ignore it is to fight it. To study change is to use it to one's advantage and society's benefit. The inexorable stream of human life and culture demands that those in the helping relationship be alert to

change. Further, each must be attuned to the implications of that change. And above all, each must be active in the change, and not merely passive recipients of it.

(1) The first trend is the emphasis on guidance for the gifted, or the cry for excellence.

Today, there are those who by practice define excellence. They do this by downgrading something else, which then gives the appearance of upgrading another facet of living. This is well illustrated by those who would downgrade athletics in educational institutions in the hope of upgrading academics. This is a dangerous approach in that it probably depresses both. The essence of excellence is in asserting magnificent qualities, independent of other factors, in a highly competitive, interrelated world. Excellence should be achieved in its proper sphere and in proper order, not necessarily in comparison or contrast with factors of a different order.

Further, there are those who would decry the so-called mediocrity of vocationalism and go only to the excellence of academics. Their very platform of "viewing with alarm" is one of vocationalism—their own careers. To decry vocationalism is to deny the dignity of labor, even for those who toil in the vineyard of the souls.

The current cry for excellence must be applicable to all areas of living, not alone for the esotericism found in man's use of that supreme quality—rationality. There is need for excellence in whatever a person does if the democratic concept, and Judaic-Christian ethic, if the exaltation of every human is to be fulfilled. Is there not room for many at the inn of humanity? As a counselor, where do you stand?

EDITOR'S NOTE

Eighteen specific guidance trends are enumerated by the author, who is professor of education at the Ohio State University in Columbus, and he charges the school counselors to keep abreast of these movements. Whether or not we are primarily concerned with direct counseling of pupils there are implications behind these guidance trends which offer food for thought.

As Gardner states, "We must foster a conception of excellence which may be applied to every degree of ability and to every socially acceptable activity." (p. 131)

(2) The second trend is toward a continuous guidance program with concern for the distinctive features of each school level.

Guidance is a process, not a series of discrete events. If it be a process, where is the continuous trend from the kindergarten through college? Can the process be shifted back and forth—teacher to counselor to other specialists? Do we shift the teaching of English from teacher to English specialist to other specialist? Or do we emphasize the continuity of the teacher of English throughout the school career of boys and girls. The trend today is one of continuity with trained school counselors. Therefore, as counselors we have a voice in the distorted emphasis of the adjustment concept in the elementary years and the equally distorted emphasis on a sterile subject matter by too many teachers at the secondary level.

(3) The third trend is the bursting bubble of the Babelic confusion of our many subcultures.

The turbulence and realignment of subcultures call for the school counselor's most discerning study. The school counselor is in a very real sense the most formidable catalytic agent of all the forces impinging on the individual. It is often through him that the individual gains the outer creative force for igniting his own potential to reshape not only himself but the society in which he lives. What have counselors done in using the reflective thinking process in sorting out the many strains of culture? This sorting should result in a decision of what is worth while and what is of little or no value. Today, we are afraid to believe in something lest we be called conformists or worse yet indoctrinators; then we cease to stand for anything. And we have heard so much about how we, as educators, come from a different culture from that of our pupils that we feel almost frightened to act. Yet the school coun-

selor must act—act with understanding of the cultural revolutions in our society.

(4) The effective school counselor of today and tomorrow should devote his full energies to his guidance functions. The diffusion of energies with other assignments does a disservice to our students. The organic limits of counseling, the span of guidance information to encompass, the accessibility to students, and the continuity of the integration process of the guidance throughout the school day preclude the diversion of the counselor's attention and effort to equally important but conflicting educational functions. The assumption that only through continued classroom teaching will the counselor understand pupils violates not only the counselor's intelligence and human sensitivity but also his training as a student of human behavior.

(5) The question of the appropriateness of the current use of government funds for guidance is a concern of every professional school counselor. What do school counselors perceive as the proper role of government in guidance? If they agree with current procedures, how are they supporting the program?

If they disagree with contemporary government efforts, how are they providing constructive recommendations for change? What would happen to guidance if the federal government suddenly withdrew its financial and professional interest, say in 1963? I hesitate to think of the catastrophic results to our guidance responsibilities to pupils.

(6) There is a growing similarity in the academic competencies expected of every pupil personnel worker, whether he be school counselor or school psychologist. If this is true, what are the implications for each pupil personnel specialist? Is there a need for a complete recategorization of pupil personnel workers?

If each of the pupil personnel workers is to be fully recognized as a student of human behavior, then each needs a core of similar academic education. The operational area

of each specialty would come in the latter phase of training.

(7) There is a trend of tremendous proportions which involves a continuing expansion of testing. In a recent article, I wrote the following: "One of the primary aims of guidance is to assist the individual to understand better his abilities and characteristics and to do this in a direct manner, principally through counseling. As one examines current large-scale testing programs, it is quite apparent that the testing programs are not centered toward the above-stated basic premise of guidance. More often than not the test result becomes an administrative tool for admitting or not admitting the youth to a next step in his educational progress. True, the placing of the boy or girl tells the individual he is or is not wanted in some particular program, but too often there is not a direct line of communication with the boy or girl to discuss with him in the privacy of counseling the total meaning of the test results which have such important implications." (Peters, pp. 142-43)

What are counselors doing about the expansion of testing?

(8) There is a growing emphasis on guidance for the normal. This trend emphasizes that guidance functions should be available for pupils who can profit within the usual classroom environment. This is a parallel trend to the emphasis on guidance for those who cannot profit from the typical classroom learning setting because of physical or mental deprivation.

Too often guidance is associated only with PROBLEMS. In its pristine conceptualization, guidance is concerned with helping each boy or girl to become his or her best possible self. Guidance is a process aimed toward the furtherance of each one's capacity to become a person of stature.

(9) A trend that continues unabated is the idiographic-nomothetic controversy. Computers and data-processing have received widespread acceptance. However, there is hesitancy to use these results indis-

criminately. Allport's dictum, "In the individual, all laws are modified," is particularly appropriate.

Today, as never before, there is a resurgence of concern for each individual, independent of his fitting into any one of myriad sets of group norms. The primary principle of guidance is focus on the individual. How often have counselors considered this in their group activities and group data based reports?

(10) There is a growing tendency toward teacher involvement in guidance in a different way from before. The teacher acts as a "radar," detecting both *positive* and negative concerns for pupils. The teacher continues to focus on subject matter but works more closely with the school counselor when the focus is on the pupil's self. The increased attention of the teacher to act as a booster of power within capable pupils is a new emphasis. This is in contrast to major attention to those pupils who can no longer profit from classroom instruction.

Still unclear are the best ways for involving the teacher in the guidance process. Although the trend for teacher involvement in guidance continues, there is need for a distinction among effective teaching procedures, mental health approaches, instructional concern for individual differences, and guidance activities.

(11) An eleventh trend in guidance is the effort to move from the current plateau in counselor education. There is a growing movement toward a re-emphasis of the value of full-time graduate study for those who wish to be professional school counselors.

The inclusion of interdisciplinary studies in the counselor's graduate program is a definite part of this trend. The necessity for wide horizons in a specialist's world is coming into counselor education programs.

Further, there seems to be some concern that a graduate program for the preparation of school counselors be extended to two years of study. The counselor-to-be needs

time to experience and to assess his developmental progress in the heart of the guidance process—counseling.

(12) There is a trend to look at the future in terms of the future rather than in terms of the past. This is the twelfth trend of concern to school counselors. The rapidity of changes in the present distorts the implications of the past insofar as many trends are concerned. This is particularly true in looking at occupational developments. Without quibbling over words, there seems to be advantage in considering "trending" rather than "trends." "Trending" implies emphasis on the future rather than on extension of the past as is implied in "trends." The vantage point is important. The difference may be one of shading but it is reported that the sky itself reflects different colors from different vantage points—especially from Washington and Moscow.

(13) There is a trend toward more action research by school counselors. The principle is that involvement means interest and greater understanding. Too often there are entanglement and disillusionment. The concept of function of the counselor must be more clearly determined. Too often research has a chain reaction which all but takes the counselor out of the counseling process. The careful apportionment of the counselor's time to rigorous statistical research is a problem which must be considered by counselor educators.

(14) The counselor and the implication of his values in counseling are a topic of growing interest. There is a trend toward greater counselor centeredness. The counselor is learning that he is not neutral. He is experiencing the projection of himself in the counselee's counseling experiences. Therefore, the school counselor has been forced into the position of examining his values rather than keeping them submerged in the disillusionment of nondirectivism.

The school counselor is in desperate need of a conceptualization of counseling which is consonant with the reality of the second-

ary high school. The assumption of the use of counseling theories, procedures, and values found in college and clinical settings only brings a situation of frustration to the school counselor.

(15) There is a slight trend toward the use of new approaches to guidance records and to the use of guidance data. In no other area of guidance is there such a lack of analysis as in the proper use of guidance records. For too long guidance records have been one of many forms in the denial of the principles of guidance. The constant use of the past to routinize one's role in the future is a travesty on the very purposes of guidance.

(16) Delightfully there is a new look at the meaning of guidance. Perhaps this trend should be the number one focus in examining other trends. The 1961 American Personnel and Guidance Association convention had a particular program on "The Outlook for Guidance Today: a Symposium on Problems of Practice, Theory, and Strategy." This is a much needed area for study by counselor educators and by school counselors. One needs only to examine recent professional periodicals to note a resurgence of interest in the meaning of guidance in our schools.

(17) If the first half of the twentieth century in guidance emphasized techniques, the second half of the 1900's will reflect a trend toward focus on the person—on the self. The revitalization of the person as the focus of guidance is releasing each human from the prejudices of the past (and still present), from being locked in an artificially encompassed subculture, and from a conformity to those who in their own careers do not conform. As eloquently proclaimed by the son in the recent Broadway hit, *Five Finger Exercise*: "I want to be myself—myself—myself—not an extension of you [Dad]." The seventeenth trend of guidance is a continuing emphasis of looking at the person as the key dimension in the guidance process.

(18) The official professionalization of the school counselor is reflected in counselor

certification trends. Many states are requiring a minimum of a master's degree program. Some states emphasize training beyond the master's. More universities are offering six-year study programs. The number of states with certification requirements for school counselors in 1956 was thirty-two. The number of states in 1960 with certification requirements for school counselors was forty-one, thirty-seven with mandatory requirements, and four with optional requirements.

One of the difficulties which counteracts the school counselor's active participation in forming the trends of his profession is his very nature. The sensitive, empathic, insightful nature of the counselor runs counter to an outer-directed person. Yet, counselors must be militant with a sense of meaning; aggressive with a sense of accent; enthusiastic with a zeal for excellence; and sound with a sense of scholarship.

Let it not be said of school counselors that they are indifferent. Let it not be said that too many counselors say, "What difference will I make?" Let it not be said in the future that counselors did not actively participate in trend making in their career fields during the current serious hour of their country's need.

As Catton compares America today in its hour of great peril with the Civil War era, he gives us the needle for action. "The American people in 1860 believed that they were the happiest and luckiest people in earth, and to a large extent they were right. They lived in a rich land that was still largely pastoral, touched by the flavor of the farm and the small town; they lived better than their fathers had lived, and they had every reason to suppose that their children would live still better. They did not want anything to spoil it. The road they were on was good and the road ahead was bound to look even more attractive, and nobody wanted to be bothered about anything." (p. 149)

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Changing Patterns in State Requirements for **TEACHER CERTIFICATION**

By DONALD L. BARNES and CHARLES D. SHIPMAN

THERE SEEM TO BE few aspects of education which change as rapidly and as unpredictably as state certification requirements. The multifarious forces seeking to influence teacher certification spring from pressure groups representing many varied economic and social dimensions of American life. The vitality and influence of these forces seem to fluctuate with public sensitivity to real or imagined local, state, and national needs. Not infrequently individuals of strong persuasion play important roles in shaping final outcomes within states.

In an effort to construct a reasonably complete and accurate picture of present requirements and future expectations, chief state school officers throughout the United States were asked for judgments and interpretations relative to certification within their respective states. They were asked to compare present requirements in general ed-

ucation, professional education, and areas of certification with those of 1955. They were also asked to identify present trends and speculate regarding future developments in certification standards.

Because of the great variety of standard and substandard or emergency certificates offered by states under specialized conditions and variations in requirements for comprehensive or more abbreviated areas of major preparation, comparisons among state requirements are not easily constructed.

Increasing Total Requirements for Certification

Continuing the trend from the immediate postwar period, about half the states report increased total requirements for certification during the past five years. Fourteen states have increased general education (liberal arts) requirements, twenty-three states have raised the course hour requirements for majors in subject matter areas, and five states have increased professional education requirements. Nevada, Minnesota, Kentucky, Wisconsin, Michigan, Colorado, Vermont, Indiana, and Illinois, among other states, anticipate increased requirements in areas of specialization within the immediate future.

Variations in Professional Education Requirements

Professional education requirements for elementary majors vary from 16 semester hours in Alaska, North Dakota, and Illinois to 36 hours in New York State. Nationally, the average for elementary certification is 23.5 semester hours. Professional-education requirements for secondary majors range from 12 semester hours in Maine and Massa-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Since education is largely a function of the individual states, considerable variations in many aspects of education are unavoidable. While it would be undesirable to impose a stereotyped school system upon all of the states, there are certain elements within our educational processes which should strive toward national uniformity. For example, take the matter of teacher certification. Here is a muddy area fraught with archaic requirements and practices. Since teachers are teachers no matter where they may teach, why can't the states agree on basic teacher certification regulations? Our authors, who are on the faculty at Ball State Teachers College at Muncie, Indiana, present an objective evaluation of this important topic.

TABLE I

| Area of Specialization | State Mean (Hours) | Range among States* (Hours) |
|---------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Agriculture | 38.0 | 16 to 86 |
| Music | 34.0 | 15 to 62 |
| Home economics | 33.7 | 16 to 63 |
| Commerce | 31.0 | 15 to 60 |
| Girls' physical education | 30.4 | 15 to 60 |
| Boys' physical education | 30.4 | 15 to 60 |
| Art | 30.4 | 15 to 60 |
| Industrial arts | 30.2 | 15 to 60 |
| Social science | 26.4 | 15 to 40 |
| Science | 24.8 | 15 to 48 |
| English | 24.4 | 15 to 40 |
| Speech | 22.8 | 10 to 48 |
| Library science | 21.8 | 6 to 40 |
| Foreign language | 21.5 | 12 to 42 |
| Mathematics | 19.6 | 15 to 40 |
| Journalism | 19.0 | 12 to 40 |

* Range represents spread from most abbreviated requirements in states with lowest requirements to comprehensive areas of specialization in states with most extensive requirements.

chusetts to 27 hours in the state of Washington. The average among all states is 19.0. Student teaching requirements, included in the above totals, vary from 0 semester hours in Maine (except in agriculture and home economics) to 10 semester hours in the state of Washington. Nationally, student teaching requirements average 5.14 semester hours.

Variations in General-Education Requirements

General-education requirements, which are not specified in most states, continue to receive less attention than requirements for certification in areas of specialization. Among the 30 states specifying general-education requirements, the computed means are 45.3 semester hours for elementary majors and 47.2 semester hours for secondary majors.

Requirements in Areas of Specialization

Many states have established minimum course-hour requirements for the various areas of specialization. In general, teaching areas in the applied arts and sciences have higher course-hour requirements than the

more traditional high-school subject areas. In descending order of average course-hour requirements the various areas of specialization appear in Table I.

Fluctuation in Areas of Certification

Much confusion has resulted from the ambivalence of many states regarding areas of certification. Twenty-one states report that they have increased the number of areas in which certification is possible within the last five years; ten states have decreased the number of certificates they offer. Montana, South Dakota, Oregon, Oklahoma, New York, New Mexico, Wyoming, Texas, and California anticipate fewer areas of certification in the near future; Missouri, Wisconsin, West Virginia, Louisiana, and Utah plan to add one or more new areas of certification. The weight of the evidence suggests that we are gradually, but awkwardly, moving toward less specificity in certification.

Crosscurrents Affecting Certification

A number of factors are influencing certification on a nationwide basis. With increasing population mobility has come a growing interest in certification reciprocity. An eleven-state reciprocity compact was established among the six New England States and New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. A similar arrangement, called the Central States Conference Reciprocity Agreement, includes the states of Iowa, Nebraska, Wisconsin, Illinois, Kansas, and Missouri. States with soaring populations are especially eager to utilize teaching talent appearing within their borders. A number of educational organizations, like the American Association of School Administrators, are also establishing and enforcing standards in special areas of certification.

Perhaps the most apparent change has occurred in states which are establishing certification on an "approved program" basis. Under this plan, institutional programs are studied and approved or rejected. Graduates from approved institutions receive auto-

matic certification upon completion of their work. Montana, Maine, Missouri, Pennsylvania, New York, Michigan, North Carolina, Mississippi, Hawaii, Delaware, and Connecticut, among others, report significant progress in this direction. The power to accredit institutions preparing teachers is presently vested in most state education departments.

A Look to the Future

Most chief state school officers and institutions preparing teachers recognize that certification requirements simply define the minimums within and beyond which excellence may be achieved. Few would suggest that the value placed upon certificates does not ultimately rest upon the quality of teacher-education programs. Numerous or-

ganizations like the Council of Chief State School Officers, the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, the National School Boards Association, and the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education have been increasingly active in raising standards of teacher certification. Much of our hope for the future rests upon the wisdom and effectiveness of these organizations in encouraging stronger programs in the more than 1,160 degree-granting institutions preparing teachers and the public schools which receive their graduates. Firmness and flexibility must be combined with a growing sensitivity to national needs if we are to meet the challenge of the sixties.



Spontaneity in Art

When one studies average art works by high school students, one can detect many failures which can be directly attributed either to the students' inability to attend to detail, or to their inability to carry out projects to their final and most satisfactory conclusion. After all, every genuine work of art contains two basic elements; one is plain labor, and the other is a composite of inspiration and invention.

In many instances these elements become quite obvious in significant works of art after only a brief study. Yet it is not infrequent for great masterpieces to give us the impression of having resulted from a spontaneous creative outburst. However, these "unlabored" creations are often deceptive; they are, in fact, highly skillful disguises hiding strenuous efforts, or else they are the results of years of arduous exertion.

It is not rare to find untutored spontaneity in the drawings of small children, and we rightly ad-

miere them for it. But a marked difference exists between the work of elementary school children and that of high school students. It is characteristic that adolescents, with their self-critical attitude, lose this desirable effortlessness. The high school student, like any artist, must therefore labor to the limit of his ability and must then attempt to go beyond this point.

It is mainly self-discipline which enables the artist to travel the difficult and laborious road leading from the creative impulse and the spontaneous sketch to the finished work. Considerable self-discipline is needed to be swayed neither by a lack of immediate success, nor by disappointment due to a feeling of inadequacy. In fact, one of the most important prerequisites for any creative success is the ability to pursue an aim steadfastly, regardless of whether or not rapid results are attained.—MANFRED L. KEILER in *Educational Leadership*.

EVENTS AND OPINIONS

WORDS TO REMEMBER: Sweeping accusations apparently were the order of the day when educators and politicians met on the Stanford University campus to participate in the annual Cubberley Conference on Education. Senator J. W. Fulbright, Democrat of Arkansas, took the universities to task in a speech recorded for this occasion. He stated that the "universities are not without a share of responsibility for the widespread disrepute of education in this country in recent years and for the public mood of anti-intellectualism." This situation, according to the senator, exists because the universities have devised curriculums "weighted with pretentious scientism and with vacuous courses in 'life adjustment.'"

The secondary schools also had their turn when Dr. John H. Fischer, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, charged that "too few American schools are now prepared to offer either instruction or supporting services at the levels of quality necessary to guarantee sound and effective education." While he supported local and state control of education rather than a "monolithic" federal system, the dean asserted that "some of the most arbitrary and shortsighted practices to be found in American schools are the fruit of local action. And some of the best things that have ever happened to American students have come by act of Congress and through the administration of the federal government." Citing the G.I. educational benefits as an example, Dean Fischer felt that you cannot condemn such an act simply because it originated in Washington and then condone a local board of education who hired a "stupid" teacher in payment for a political debt.

JOB CRITERIA: College students are far more interested in the personal relations, the personal traits, and the style of life as-

sociated with an occupation than they are in the traditional goals of work and production, according to a report by the *New York Times*. Thus, the hero of the American student is the doctor, with the lawyer running a close second. This picture emerges from a five-year study conducted by two Michigan State University psychologists for the United States Office of Education. Results show that the students didn't know much about the work involved in the fifteen occupations they rated, but they knew what they liked.

Doctors were rated highest in the four areas thought to be most important: cultured intellect, material and social success, sociability, personal and political responsibility. Lawyers, business executives, college professors, and high-school teachers were rated next in order. Scientists, engineers, businessmen, and accountants were low on the list. If all conditions, such as salaries and their own abilities, were ideal, however, the students would have rated professors first and high-school teachers much higher.

NO INCOME TAX FOR TEACHERS: Here is a small-town doctor from Libertyville, Illinois, who has hit upon a unique plan for forestalling federal aid to education. Why not simply exempt all salaries paid to teachers and administrators from income tax? According to the good doctor, this would allow schools to increase take-home pay and, at the same time, some of the money saved from taxes could be applied on school construction and equipment. If we were to think seriously of this proposal, all kinds of problems would present themselves. But it was a good thought while it lasted.

STANDARDS OF LEADERSHIP: A recent survey of the educational qualifications demanded of superintendents of

schools around the country, conducted by the American Association of School Administrators, shows that of the fifty states only Iowa and Indiana presently require two years of graduate work for superintendents' certificates. The state of Washington requires sixty hours of graduate study for a *permanent* certificate, while other states have established or are in the process of establishing future deadlines when advanced work will be required. The A.A.S.A. puts it succinctly when it states "it is surely true that few, if any, school systems will be any better than their superintendents."

TEACHING MACHINES: The advent of this latest educational tool has created considerable curiosity, doubt, and enthusiasm by school people all over the country. However, a much needed source for providing accurate information on various aspects of teaching machines was created recently by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. The Center for Programed Instruction at 365 West End Avenue, New York City, has published an eight-page bulletin "Programed Instruction," which includes answers by four experts to controversial questions about this new teaching device. In addition, the bulletin offers guidance for teachers who wish to try out programing techniques and contains criteria for evaluating self-instruction devices.

CARS AND GRADES: Frequently in the past, this column has commented upon the relationship of car ownership and grade accomplishment of high-school students. It is generally agreed that when a student begins to drive a car, his grades begin to fall. Parents, of course, should exercise the major control over their children who drive, and they should be prepared to mete out appropriate restrictions if grades falter. However, several school principals have taken the initiative by taking away the privilege of driving to and from school for those students who produce failing grades. Many schools

prohibit students from driving to school, while others limit the number of riders whom a student driver may chauffeur.

A survey conducted by the All-State Insurance Company emphasizes the troubles that cars can bring to high-school juniors and seniors. (1) Grades start to suffer when the car is used more than two days out of the five-day school week. (2) Those who used the car at least four days were more than twice as likely to be *D* or worse students than the two-day drivers. (3) Best records were made by students using the car only on weekends. (4) Good students who yield to the car craze suffer the sharpest drop in grades. (5) The longer a boy owns a car, the less chance he has of becoming a good student. (6) There are twice as many *A* and *B* students among those with neither car nor job to support it, as there are among students with jobs and cars. The survey, covering 20,000 students throughout the nation, stressed the effect of car costs on grades. Of students spending six dollars or more a week on their cars, only 1 per cent were *A* pupils. But among those who spent less than three dollars, the ratio of *A* students was four times as high.

However, schools themselves tend to give students an extra push into the driver's seat in one respect—about 98 per cent of New Jersey high schools have driver instruction programs. About 110,000 licenses are issued to teen-agers in the state each year.

REPORT ON TEAM TEACHING: For the nominal charge of fifty cents, you can secure an informative report on team teaching prepared and published, incidentally, by the parents of the children taught under this plan. Interested readers should write to the Norwalk Plan Co-ordinating Committee, Fox Run School, 228 Fallow Street, Norwalk, Connecticut. While this report is based exclusively upon an elementary school experience, it contains over-all conclusions and recommendations.

JOSEPH GREEN

A Study in Educational Improvement

By HULDA GROBMAN

OUR NATIONAL SURVIVAL may be dependent on our ability to make rapid changes in American education. Will we be able to do this? Can we hasten the process of change? Can we determine what change is needed, and effect this change quickly?

In seeking the answer to this question, we might take a look at the situation in science education. Over the past seventy years, many national committees of scientists have been studying secondary-school science education and making recommendations. These committees study the situation carefully, they come up with recommendations, and then they disband. Undoubtedly these committees have had some influence on the course of biology teaching. But the limited extent of this influence is indicated by the many criticisms that are repeated over and

over again during more than half a century, and by the fact some of the latest criticisms closely resemble the earliest ones.

For example, consider the following recommendations for needed improvement in science education:

1. More emphasis on "reasoning out" rather than memorization.
2. More attention to developing a "problem-solving attitude" and a "problem-raising attitude" on the part of the students.
3. More applications of the subject to the everyday life of the pupil and the community.
4. More emphasis on the incompleteness of the subject and glimpses into the great questions yet to be solved by investigators.
5. Less coverage of territory; the course should progress no faster than pupils can go with understanding.

The foregoing recommendations sound as though they were made in 1950 or 1960; they closely resemble current criticisms of science teaching. But they summarize recommendations of the report of the Committee on Fundamentals of the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, 1910.¹

The effectiveness of investigatory committees in the past may have been limited by two factors: First, they have often been dominated by research scientists, and have failed to utilize the resources of high-school teachers, curriculum specialists, and psychologists who know high-school students and how they learn. Certainly research scientists on the frontiers of scientific development have a major contribution to make in designing secondary school science-education pro-

EDITOR'S NOTE

We recall seeing a sign in the corridor of a school which admonished its pupils to "make haste slowly" in the event of a fire or air-raid drill. In spite of the crash programs which have been innovated in recent years, educational improvement is a carefully calculated procedure. It must be if this improvement is to be worth while and effective. The author describes the manner in which the biological sciences curriculum is being reshaped. And this process may serve as a prototype for seeking improvements in other subject areas.

Our contributor, who is a consultant for the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study at the University of Colorado in Boulder, invites interested persons to read the Newsletter which is published periodically by the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study. It's free; a postal card to the B.S.C.S. at the University of Colorado will do the trick.

¹ *Biological Education in American Secondary Schools 1890-1960* by Paul DeH. Hurd. Bulletin No. 1, Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, 1961.

grams. But they are not the only group that has a contribution; and they should not be the sole arbiters of what needs to be done.

Second, these committees have examined, weighed, and passed judgment; they have made recommendations—often very sound recommendations—and then they have disbanded. They have waited for someone else to act on their recommendations. Too often such action has not been taken, and the recommendations have not been adequately reflected in educational reform.

One wonders whether a different kind of approach—a “commission” that uses a different procedure—can have a greater influence on science education.

The answer to this question should not be long in coming, since several such “commissions” are currently working to effect change in high-school physics, biology, chemistry, geology, and mathematics teaching. For example, the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (B.S.C.S.), now in its third year, was established by the American Institute of Biological Sciences to seek the improvement of biological education. In its work, it is deliberately seeking to avoid the omissions of earlier commissions. It is involving large numbers of high-school teachers as well as research scientists, educators, school administrators, and psychologists—with over 1,200 people actively participating to date. And it is not only studying shortcomings in present high-school courses but is preparing new curricular materials which attempt to overcome them.

After two years of background work, the B.S.C.S. in 1960 held a first summer writing conference, to prepare new high-school biology courses that would more nearly adequately meet the needs of today's students. Sixty-nine writers—more than half of them high-school biology teachers and the remainder, collegiate research biologists—worked in teams to develop experimental versions of three new high-school biology courses. The new materials include texts, laboratory manuals, teacher's guides, and brief techniques

films. These experimental versions were tried out by 118 teachers with their 14,000 students during the 1960-61 school year.

These teachers and students actively participated in rewriting the materials. Reactions of participating teachers and their students were obtained on a systematic basis: First, the teachers were organized in fifteen testing centers throughout the United States, with six to nine teachers in each center. These teachers met weekly and discussed their experience with the materials; they criticized and made suggestions. Reports of these meetings were sent back to the B.S.C.S. headquarters. In addition, two B.S.C.S. staff members, both of whom have been high-school biology teachers, visited each of the testing centers and talked with participating teachers, students, and administrative personnel. In addition, in co-operation with the Educational Testing Service, specially constructed new tests were administered to students, to determine the extent to which the students achieved the objectives set by the writing teams.

A second summer writing conference in 1961 revised these experimental materials based on this feedback information. During the present school year the revised materials are now being tested further by some 45,000 students, with feedback being obtained again, before the materials will be made generally available.

Once these new biology programs are generally available, will they influence the mainstream of biology teaching? Will the work of this “commission” have an effect?

It will be several years before this question can be answered definitively. The adoption of B.S.C.S. course materials will of course be one gauge of change in biology teaching. But it will not be the only measure. To measure the effectiveness of the program, it will be necessary to examine the whole field of biology curriculums and determine what impact, if any, the B.S.C.S. materials have had on other biology writers and curriculum workers.

If the B.S.C.S. and the similar programs in chemistry, physics, and mathematics are able to develop high-school materials that more nearly meet the needs for science and mathematics teaching in the world today, and if these materials set a new pattern in

their fields, then perhaps we will have developed a new way of accelerating educational change in America—a method that can be applied effectively to various facets of American public education, to help the American schools meet the challenge of the future.



Manager or Educator?

It is only natural that people think in terms with which they are familiar. Those who hold the managerial concept of the principalship borrow their ideas from business and industry. Consider this analogy: a board of directors (school board), general manager (superintendent), plant managers (principals), foremen (department heads). Consider also the similarity of terms in "school board" and "board of directors," and consider the slang term for a school as a "brain factory." Persons who have this concept of school administration hold that it is the business of management to manage and of teachers to teach. As one trustee put it: if you want to know the relationship between teachers and the school administration, look up *The Masters & Servants Act*.

Business and industry has long organized its administration in a hierarchy, where those above transmit directives or orders to those below. This line of authority is dependent on obedience by those in subordinate positions. Obedience is motivated by fear: fear of loss of promotion, of salary, or of job. The desired behavior in subordinates is produced by regulations which require or forbid certain actions.

It is not contended that modern business and industry actually operates in this fashion. Its weaknesses were found long ago, and in fact business and industry has largely abandoned this concept of administration. However, some people in education think that this is the way that business and industry operates, and it is the "picture in the mind" when they consider educational administration.

There are grave dangers in analogies with business and industry. Their products are things, not ideas. They deal with materials, not children. Their workers are skilled to unskilled, not professionals.

Their success or failure is measured in profits, not in self-actualization or self-abasement of the next generation.

Persons who hold the managerial concept of educational administration sketched above regard the principal as an arm of management. They expect the principal to regulate the activities of teachers by requiring and forbidding. They expect the principal to rate teachers for promotion or loss of it, for salary increments or loss of them, for retention or dismissal. They expect the principal as an arm of management to accept a salary set in some other fashion than negotiation and to refrain from being on a bargaining team. As an extension of this, they expect principals to dissociate themselves from their professional organization and to set up a separate one of their own.

These concomitants of the managerial concept of educational administration can all be rejected on the grounds that the managerial concept is itself unsound. First, education is more like lighting a fire than filling a jug. The inspired, dedicated type of teaching which develops love of knowledge, initiative, and ability to solve problems cannot be coerced or motivated by fear. Second, business and industry has long ago discovered that production is not best secured by these methods. Third, teaching is a highly personalized, professional activity. As a recent Alberta researcher put it, after observing Alberta teachers in Alberta classrooms for over a month, "There is more than one pattern of good teaching." The zero order correlations between supervisor's ratings and pupil gain in achievement would support our Alberta researcher. Thus, the idea of regulating, requiring, forbidding, and rating do not fit well into education.—S. C. T. CLARKE in the *ATA Magazine*.

Studies in Pseudo Professionalism

By CLARK C. GILL

IN EVERY PROFESSION large numbers fail to measure up to the demands of their positions. Unable or unwilling to stretch themselves to meet the responsibilities of their profession, they shrink it to suit their mediocrity. What is left after all the professionalism has been squeezed out is a job—a dull, drab, dreary routine bereft of creativity, imagination, or purpose.

Thus a physician often becomes a pill dispenser; an engineer becomes a technician; an architect becomes a draftsman; a college professor becomes a director of trifling research; a writer turns into a literary hack; a lawyer becomes a shyster, following ambulances rather than Blackstone; a pharmacist poses as an authority on nostrums to lose weight or blue-plate specials to increase it; and the political administrator becomes a petty politician. Though they masquerade under pretentious titles, they operate at a lower level. Narrow minds wrestling with big problems, small hearts touching the lives of people, feeble hands wielding great power—all of these happen when little men and women sit in big chairs and play at

holding down positions bigger than themselves.

The teaching profession, which is the largest of all, has its share of pseudo professionals with exalted titles and low-level performance. From my own observations and those reported to me by students and teachers, I shall try to construct composites of ten types of pseudo professionals. This is not meant to be an exhaustive list because I have found many types too slippery to classify. Each of them reveals how a profession can be stripped down to a routinized job. Let us identify some types whose similarity to real persons is not intentional unless it fits.

Our first type of pseudo professional is the custodian. By title, he is superintendent of schools, presumably the educational leader of the school and the community. But his primary concern is keeping the buildings in a proper state of cleanliness and repair. He has a passing acquaintance with John Dewey and Thorndike, but he is more of an authority on floor wax and window cleaner. Having lost any vision of educational leadership, he has pinched his position down to that of a high-priced janitor.

A second type of pseudo professional is the inspector. Actually, he is the supervising principal of several elementary schools and makes weekly visits to schools under his supervision. But what does he supervise? When the teachers see him drive up, they immediately stop their reading or arithmetic lessons and start "policing" the classroom, picking up every paper scrap, straightening each bookshelf, and arranging the chairs in neat rows. The principal expects to see an orderly classroom and discusses nothing else on his visits. He has shrunk his position as an educational supervisor to an inspector of order and cleanliness.

EDITOR'S NOTE

As the saying goes, any similarity to persons living or dead is purely coincidental. Frequently, CH has presented articles concerning individuals whose attitudes, interests, and accomplishments have approached the zenith of professionalism. Now be prepared to read amusing caricatures of those who have lost their way somewhere along the line. However, let's face it. Don't you think there is a little bit of pretense in each of us, including the author, who is on the faculty at the College of Education, University of Texas, in Austin?

A third type is the record keeper. He is the school counselor, who conducts a school-wide testing program and builds up an elaborate system of records. Teachers are discouraged from using the data because they may get the files out of place. Moreover, these are confidential data, which only competent people should interpret and use. The counselor is too busy testing and recording to instruct teachers in the use of test data. He is even too busy to counsel with the pupils. As a counselor, he is a better record keeper, and his efforts, lacking current significance, some day may have historical value.

A fourth pseudo professional is the book custodian. Actually, she is the librarian. She is reluctant to order new books because some of those on hand have never been used. Books are neatly stacked on the shelves. The card catalogue is behind her desk, easily guarded and not easily accessible to the pupils. The library is an austere but attractive show place, always neat and orderly. It is never used much, and the librarian prefers it that way.

A fifth type of pseudo professional is the gadget manipulator. This teacher's junior-high class offers a steady fare of posters, models, scrapbooks, charts, maps, and other audio-visual aids. Only the sand table seems to be missing. Interest is high as pupils move swiftly from one device to another as a two-year old samples a succession of toys in his playpen. The trouble is that all this activity leads nowhere. This teacher is so busy manipulating materials, she forgets to look for significance or purpose. She is particularly happy when the class is studying industrial development because, as she puts it, "the class can send off for things." This teacher is an entertainer and a gadget master. Until she learns to grapple with ideas, she can hardly be called a teacher, unless one measures the quality of teaching by the attractiveness of bulletin boards.

A sixth type of pseudo professional is the textbook administrator. The only visible ob-

jective of the course is to cover the textbook by the end of the year. To do so, she divides the text into daily morsels of a few pages. When asked about enriching her class with audio-visual materials and reference books in the library, she replies, "These kids can't even handle the textbook yet; they're not ready for any frills." In one of the subjects she taught, she was confronted with an almost insoluble problem. The state had adopted three different textbooks in history, civics, and geography, all to be used in teaching social studies at this grade level. Less ingenious textbook administrators would have been overwhelmed, but not this one. But, let her explain her neat solution: "First, I examined the length of the textbooks to see which one could be covered most easily in a year. Then I hid the other two, so the pupils wouldn't get confused."

A seventh type of pseudo professional is the martinet, often jocularly referred to as "the warden" by the pupils in afterclass conversation. Her word is law, and her size and manner lend emphasis to every command, striking terror into the hearts of angels and transgressors alike. Her pupils memorize the preamble to the Constitution, the Gettysburg Address, the names of the Presidents and even the Vice-presidents. Her conversation is liberally sprinkled with threats and admonitions as she continually reminds her class what a beautiful thing democracy is. She is known by all as a tough disciplinarian. She is especially appreciated by the principal because she handles her own discipline problems and doesn't clutter up his office with referrals. She claims to be a good teacher, but the epithet ascribed to her by her pupils is probably more nearly accurate.

Pseudo professional number 8 is the scorekeeper. A progress chart hangs neatly on the wall denoting each pupil's record of accomplishment. Classwork is specific and highly mechanized. So many work sheets are to be completed each day. Recitation consists of reading answers to the work sheet, and the scores for each pupil are recorded on the

progress chart. Test questions at the end of the week are lifted directly from the work sheets. What are the work sheets? They are mainly a collection of sentences from the text with key words (sometimes not so key) to be filled in, with not a thought question to be found that would lead the pupil to search for new ideas. In fact, new ideas from other sources are discouraged. The teacher tried bringing in films, resource people, and reports on outside reading. She even planned a field trip. But the pupils complained bitterly about these futile attempts at enrichment. Even an exciting instructional film left them cold and unexcited because it took classtime from filling in worksheet 199, which they then had to complete at home. Marks are based on tests; tests are based on work sheets; work sheets are based on nothing of any great significance. The whole ugly process gives the pupils a false feeling of security and the classroom an atmosphere of busyness (busywork). Until the teacher can break out of the imprisonment imposed by this deadly routine, the teacher's role will continue to be that of a scorekeeper. In that role, both she and the class will feel contentment in the same way that a prisoner long accustomed to wearing chains feels comfortable with them.

A ninth type of pseudo professional is the evaluator. Nightly she trudges home with a brief case overflowing with pupils' written work. Although she spends endless after-school hours poring over and marking each contribution, she is always dilatory in the return of papers. She spends so much time correcting papers, she has little time or energy for planning. Having made no plans, she assigns the students the task of writing the answers to the questions at the end of the chapter. Thus there are more papers to correct, more delays in returning work, less time for planning, and less energy for presentation, and the vicious circle has begun. Here is a teacher who has never achieved a workable balance among her planning, presentation, and evaluation obligations. She is

too busy correcting papers to plan. She is too busy testing to teach. She is ensnared in the tangled web of futile evaluation of what has been neither planned nor presented.

Pseudo professional number 10 is the "old nester." I am indebted for this category to a superintendent of schools, who asked me, as a consultant, "What can you do about the 'old nesters'?" The term was new to me, but after his description, I concluded it was a fitting epithet to a large and growing category of teachers who are in advanced stages of professional *rigor mortis*. The condition is characterized by an acute allergy to new ideas and methods, by a lack of zest for living and teaching, and by a willingness to sit passively for long years on one's tenure, waiting for retirement. The affliction is most often associated with near-retirement teachers but can occur at any age level. The incipient stages have been noted even during the period of student teaching.

True professional teaching has been described as a high adventure aimed at ennobling and enriching the human spirit. But there are some who are taking the low road. Instead of opening doors of knowledge, they close them. Instead of liberating the mind, they confine and stunt it. Instead of being guided by a defensible philosophy, they are engulfed by a senseless routine, devoid of purpose. It is time to make a distinction between the true professional and the pseudo professional, between what is real and what is counterfeit, between those who are interested in doing a job and those who are merely interested in holding one. The very nature of a profession permits a wide latitude of performance within it. Those with ability, ambition, and dedication can and do rise to great heights. Those without these qualities may sink to an inexcusable mediocrity which belies their professional titles. What can or should be done with this latter group is beyond the scope of this article. The obvious first step would be identification. In this task, it is hoped that the foregoing ten profiles will prove of some value.

A Proposed Program for Activating the PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION

By JAMES MICHAEL LEE

IN MY EXPERIENCE as a graduate student at a widely known school of education and later as an instructor in education at several colleges, I was impressed by the fact that there seem to be two distinct types of education professors. The first variety, unfortunately in the minority, consists of those people who practice those theories and dictums which they advocate in their classes. One of the best examples of this type which I can recall is a certain eminent teacher and author in the field of psychology. It was very reassuring to his students to know that this man's theories were being subjected constantly to the crucible of practical experience with clients. In addition to his classroom duties, this professor maintained a small private practice several miles from the college where he taught. From his practice he was able not only to test the workability

of his theories but, equally important, to evolve new hypotheses from these firsthand experiences. As a result his classes were vibrant, lifelike, and extremely rich because theory and concrete actuality were fused into one reality.

Regrettably, the second type of education professor is far more common. This is the teacher whose theories are separated from the hurly-burly of real life. Men and women of good will and broad vision, they somewhere along the line permitted their connection between practice and theory to be severed. With some, this connection was broken early in their careers; when they stepped from the public-school classroom to the college classroom, they crossed over the river into the trees. Never passing back over the river, they nonetheless looked back, saw activity on the other bank, and preached about how this activity could be changed for the better. The source of their teaching and writing was always observation or deep introspection *a longe*, and it was not too long before their vision became blurred and their theories also.

Others in this same general category determined not to allow this to happen to them. They therefore keep in contact with the public schools, visiting them quite often and discussing problems with school officials. This contact, however, is always made from the frame of reference of a professor of education, never as a teacher in that particular school. As a result their experience with elementary and/or high-school life is still vicarious. The public-school officials are naturally desirous of creating a favorable impression on their neighbor from the school of education. These schoolmen will therefore direct the professor's attention toward those

EDITOR'S NOTE

Reflect for a moment upon the teacher of tomorrow's teacher. What kind of a person should he be? First, he must be a master teacher himself by whose example his neophytes will be exposed to the ways of good teaching. Second, he must be an experimentalist, striving to improve further that which has been improved. Yet, he is a realist who keeps in constant touch with everyday classroom problems. Of course there are other worth-while attributes which our professor should possess, but we will call upon our author to pick up the discussion at this point. He formerly taught in the public schools of New York City and is currently a member of the education department at St. Joseph College, West Hartford, Connecticut.

classrooms which represent close to ideal situations, and away from the classrooms which are in some way deficient. I recall a specific instance in which a curriculum professor took her class on a field trip to a school some thirty miles distant. This school typified what she felt to be a "model curriculum."

As we passed through the building and observed certain classrooms, I had the feeling that the administration was striving more to create a favorable impression than to show us a representative cross section of the school. We visited only preselected classrooms which were all curiously similar in that they were extremely well decorated and orderly, presenting quite a contrast to those of us who were teaching in various public schools in the vicinity. The teachers in these classrooms all knew of our arrival in advance, and many of us thought that the lessons were being taught primarily with us in mind. We opined that were we not there, things in that classroom would doubtless be different. All the teachers we met seemed to go out of their way to tell us how happy every staff member is at that school. The following year I met a man who taught in that school. He told me a far different story. Many classes, he stated, had discipline problems. The turnover of teachers was very high due to staff dissatisfaction with the curriculum. Parental co-operation with the school was virtually nonexistent.

The question may then be asked, "Did the professor of education really know what was going on in that school?" If not, why not?

Some schools of education provide laboratory classrooms for the children of their staff members. The purpose of these schools is twofold, viz., to afford these children the rich experiences which the experimental curriculums are intended to provide, and to enable students in the school of education to observe at firsthand actual classroom situations. Notwithstanding the advantages of this type of program, the education students are still observers and can thus only indi-

rectly experience the underlying dynamics of that classroom. Nor is such a classroom a true representative of the typical American school setting. The pupils there, being children of the professors, in all probability will be far more receptive to and delighted by the intellectual life than the run-of-the-mill student. Indeed they will be more orderly, resourceful, and helpful. Observing such a group of selected children will be of decidedly limited value to an education student who will be appointed to a school in an underprivileged area.

I myself must testify to the dangers of being an education professor. In the late winter of the year following my resignation from public-school teaching to take up a college post, I decided to return briefly to the secondary level in order to contrast the two. The college midsemester recess provided me with just such an opportunity. The two weeks I spent in that school (the same one, incidentally, in which I had previously taught) gave me a lesson I shall not fail to remember. In but six brief months I had forgotten the noisy atmosphere, the heavy teaching load, the lack of time with which to do guidance work with every student. I suddenly realized that within this short space of time my educational ideas were beginning to lose touch with the real world of the public-school classroom. It was quite a shock.

Nor am I alone in this type of experience. Professor Edwin Fenton of the history department at Carnegie Institute of Technology in Pittsburgh had a similar rude awakening. In the September, 1960, issue of the *National Education Association Journal* he reports on his experience. In connection with a project involving the introduction of college-level courses into selected public high schools, he took a year's leave of absence to teach three social studies classes in a Pittsburgh high school. The sharp differences between high-school and university teaching situations had an almost immediate impact on him. The multifaceted roles of teacher, clerk, truant officer, policeman,

guidance counselor, and so on, which the high-school teacher is expected to assume, were things which he had heard about but never really fully understood until he himself shared the experience.

This sharing of experience is the solution to the problem of education professors' welding theory and practice. Until the professor intimately shares in public-school experiences, he cannot genuinely identify his theories with what goes on in lower-level classrooms. Identification means that one reality becomes like the other, that each shares fully with the other. If an education professor contents himself with mere armchair theorizing or even with perfunctory school visits, then he can never properly identify himself with public-school life and problems. There is only one way in which he can properly identify himself with public-school teaching, and that is by actually teaching in a public school.

I therefore propose that the faculty policy of schools of education and other teacher-training institutions be amended where necessary to require each professor of education to spend a minimum of one week a year in a public school, teaching his level and area of specialization. Furthermore, in order for such a plan to be effective, the professor should not be known as such to his elementary or high-school class. If his true identity were known, the pupils might treat him differently than they would if they thought he was a regular teacher, thus jeopardizing the very purpose of the project. Nor should the faculty be made aware of the professor's position lest they withhold their true feelings about the school, the curriculum, the pupils, and so on. The professor should immerse himself totally in the new situation so that he can experience to the full the life of the classroom teacher.

Most education professors will agree with the need and values of directly sharing in elementary and secondary school teaching and so will support this plan. But there will doubtless be a small group who will oppose

it. Indeed there are some, fortunately few in number, who fled from the hectic life in an elementary or high school to the serene sanctuary of the college campus. They do not relish once again teaching six to seven hours a day, directing an afterclass activity, talking to parents, patrolling the cafeteria, supervising a study hall, sending out absentee post cards, assisting pupils in removing their galoshes, and so on. These professors are content in the urbane, intellectual world of college and do not wish to be disturbed.

There are others who probably have a hidden fear that they will be recognized by their young charges as poor teachers. From my own experience, the worst teachers I have had have been those on the college level. College students are sufficiently restrained that they will generally not complain to the administration if a teacher is boring or ineffectual. However, elementary and high-school pupils are more vocal and assertive. In some instances they will let the poor teacher know that they are not learning anything. Invariably they will inform their parents that he is a poor teacher. The word spreads throughout the school and community, and sometimes to the school officials. It certainly would not do for the principal who, unlike the pupils or teachers, is aware of the actual status of the professor, to know that the man who prepares teachers for public schools himself cannot teach successfully in a public school.

Correlative to this line of reasoning, there are education professors who undoubtedly feel that they cannot control the youngsters. College students have learned that the path of least resistance is to sleep mentally during the course of an ineffectual teacher while at the same time feigning alertness. Elementary and high-school pupils, on the other hand, are far more restive. If they are not learning they will begin to cut up and thus disciplinary problems develop. The subsequent humiliation for the professor would be twofold: he would lose face with his pupils, who would no longer respect him, and

with his colleagues who would feel sorry for him. Certainly his dignity as a professor of education would be impaired.

There are still others who may oppose this proposal because they are afraid that their educational theories might not work out in practice. These theories can be safely taught as long as there is nothing more substantial to refute them than countertheories. However, if in practice they are proved to be ineffectual in the very realm to which they are directed, the concrete classroom situation, then the entire theory, and perhaps the professor's reputation with it, are blown up. The risk is too great, so these professors prefer to bask in the security of the college classroom.

In the face of such opposition, vibrant education professors, and happily these constitute the overwhelming majority, should do all in their power to implement this plan of shared experience by themselves annually teaching a week or more in a lower level school. Boards of education and school ad-

ministrators should co-operate as fully as possible with those education professors who wish to teach temporarily in the local schools. Details such as the reassignment of teachers whose positions the professors will assume should be worked out co-operatively and in advance.

Education is both a theoretical discipline and a practical art. The professor of education should work out his pedagogical theories in the quiet of his study, in discussions with fellow professors and schoolmen in the field, and in the interaction with his various college classes. But he must test these theories as well as try out their practical applications in the laboratory, i.e., the elementary and high-school classrooms. Failure to do this will relegate education to an ivory tower discipline, a discipline from which existential processes have been removed. And to remove the existential processes from education is to remove its *raison d'être* and eventually to extinguish it as a distinct area of knowledge.



The Program of JHS

From its earliest limited gropings in the direction of exploration and guidance to the many faceted program of today, the junior high school has never lost sight of its basic goal—the need to provide a special school environment which will meet the needs of the young adolescent. To achieve this goal, it has been necessary to design a curriculum which recognizes the varying needs of youth in tool subjects and intellectual skills, develops socially desirable attitudes, encourages development of leisure time activities, and stresses moral and spiritual values. Since our pupils cannot be fitted into a rigid pattern, it is necessary that the curriculum design be broad, flexible, capable of change and adaptable to local need.

The program in the junior high school has been characterized by stress upon general education as opposed to specialized education. It was an accepted part of our educational philosophy that pupils of junior high school age could not be expected to decide upon their choice concerning curriculum of courses which lead to vocational or specialized educational goals. The emphasis upon general education was intended to provide learning experiences that are useful to all types of pupils in every day living. Creative activities and enrichment activities evolved as a consequence of the total school program. Specialization of instruction was allowed to remain the strict province of the senior high school.—IRVING L. CARLIN in *Intercom*.

One Answer to the Dropout Problem: A Career-Guidance Program

By JOSEPH O. LORETAN

THE NEW YORK CITY CAREER-GUIDANCE PROGRAM grew out of a real concern on the part of the Junior High School Division for those of their pupils who were not meeting success in their studies—specifically those whose records indicated a strong possibility that they would leave school at the age of sixteen, before completing the senior-high-school program. Two questions motivated the thinking and the planning: How can we do a better job in preparing dropouts for successful economic living? How can we do a better job in helping some of the potential dropouts to change their minds?

Aim of the Program

Informally stated, the aims of the program are twofold: to prepare potential dropouts for a *practical* early entrance into the world of work, and to help these boys and

girls find themselves academically so that they might change their goals and remain in school after their sixteenth birthdays.

Formally stated, the aims are the following:

A. To set up a program of intensified counseling to help the pupil evaluate himself, his capabilities, and his potentialities.

B. To organize a program of training in basic knowledges and skills which these pupils will need in their future economic lives.

C. To establish a program of orientation to the basic vocational skills needed in earning a living.

D. To develop a program of training in the amenities in preparation for successful social and economic life.

The five junior high schools in which the program is currently being carried on are 43 and 118 (Manhattan), 60 (Bronx), 136 (Brooklyn), and 142 (Queens). To assist in the development of this special curriculum, three core-curriculum co-ordinators and three guidance counselors have been assigned to these schools. These experts work with teachers and pupils and with the communities.

Description of Career-Guidance Pupils

In general, the following characteristics are true of the pupils selected for the career-guidance classes: (1) Most of them have been held over in elementary school or junior high school. (2) Many of them are of Puerto Rican extraction, some having lived on the mainland for only a short period of time. (3) A sizable group come from broken homes and from foster homes. Many come from deprived areas. (4) Many of the pupils suffer from minor physical and emotional

EDITOR'S NOTE

A disquieting truism faces the educators today as it did their predecessors. Each year a certain portion of the school population is diminished by those who leave before completing their prescribed courses of study. Frequently, these boys and girls, upon leaving school, are absorbed in the maelstrom of life about them and everything is lost. The fact that the schools have not made a concerted effort to prepare these early leavers adequately to face their occupational and social problems is a blot upon an enlightened era of education. New York City is doing something about this problem. This report is by the associate superintendent in charge of the New York City junior high schools.

disabilities. (5) Many of the pupils have court records and, in all classes, there are histories of truancy.

Great care is taken in selecting pupils for these classes. They are chosen on the basis of their records and their teachers' recommendations. In all cases those pupils are assigned whose records and behavior patterns indicate that they will derive maximum benefit from this type of program. During the school year, occasional changes are made when a child indicates readiness for the normal junior-high-school program. The schools maintain waiting lists of pupils who replace those who are transferred.

Great care was also taken in selecting teachers for these classes. Among the criteria by which the choice was made was interest in children, experience, and ability in working with this type of child.

The Curriculum

What sort of curriculum would help us reach our goals? Should we adapt the regular junior-high-school program in these classes? How could we be sure that our guidance aims were incorporated into the work of the career-guidance classes?—These were but a few of the significant questions that cried for answers as the junior-high-school division designed the program in 1958.

The deliberations resulted in three criteria for the design of the career-guidance curriculum: (1) The program must be a practical one in terms of concrete learnings for the pupils. It must be one in which they can meet success. (2) The program must be similar enough to the regular junior-high-school curriculum so that boys and girls may transfer into and out of the classes according to their needs. (3) The program must be one for which materials are available or obtainable; the methodology thereof must be within the teachers' capabilities.

The curriculum that is emerging (for it is still being formulated under careful supervision) is one that, we feel, meets these criteria and serves our pupils well. Work in all

subject areas is based closely on the existing courses of study, tailored for these pupils. For example, in social studies they study New York City and New York State, as do all seventh-year boys and girls. However, the work is done in terms of job opportunities and vocational purposes. The methodology is that of the core curriculum. The teachers and classes, with the assistance of the co-ordinators, develop career-guidance-centered units of work. The classes are scheduled for double periods and more than one subject area with their official teachers. Throughout all their work, great emphasis is placed on individual and group guidance. Under the leadership of the assigned guidance counselors, the teachers carefully diagnose their pupils and their needs and plan their work accordingly. Wherever possible, maximum use is made of community resources. Trips play a large part in this curriculum as the children are led to see the vocational implications of their immediate community and their city.

An outstanding feature of the work is the development of a system of co-operative teaching in which, during periods programmed to the core teacher, the core co-ordinator or the guidance counselor is in the room assisting and advising the teacher—and teaching lessons or parts of lessons. The core co-ordinator and the guidance counselor also visit other subject classes of the career-guidance classes to gain and share information about the pupils.

Variations in programing are found in the five schools. In all schools, the official teacher is the core teacher, who teaches the class English language arts and social studies. In some of the schools, core teachers also teach the classes mathematics or science.

General Description of Content Covered

The following listing illustrates the approach to the prescribed seventh-year courses of study used in the two junior-high-schools in Manhattan: the purposes and program of the junior-high-school; the rais-

ing, processing, and selling of food; the geography of New York City; jobs involved in building and maintaining houses; the clothing industry—from the raising of raw materials to selling and caring for garments; people sharing ideas, time, and goods; transportation and communication in and around New York City; recreational facilities in and around New York City; places of worship in New York City; how to write a newspaper (i.e.: "News of the World").

At another junior high school, with an all-girl student body, the content of the courses of study is covered in terms of analyses of careers in the following areas: clerical jobs, beauty culture, nonprofessional hospitalwork, saleswork, and homemaking and housekeeping.

In two other junior high schools a major portion of the year's work centers about the theme, "The World at Work." Units developed include the following: Where can you go for fun in your neighborhood? What are some of the jobs available in your neighborhood? What are some of the jobs available in New York City?

In all of the junior high schools, learnings in the English language arts include reading skills, writing letters, using the telephone, and improving speech patterns.

The programs of individual and group guidance teach the boys and girls something about rules and techniques for obtaining jobs and holding them, the meaning and importance of work to the individual and to society, the importance of making wise decisions, and the schools' programs in terms of career preparation. Underlying the guidance programs is a consistent and constant effort to help the pupils evaluate themselves, to lead them to see the training and preparation necessary for successful social and economic living.

Materials

In all the junior high schools which participate in the career-guidance program, much use is made of materials created by

the teachers, co-ordinators, and supervisors, which are shared among the schools. The following is a list of the types of materials specially prepared and duplicated in the schools: unit vocabulary lists; questions for committees (to guide research); references (exact pages listed) for research; resource units; maps—the community, the city, the country, and so on; check lists and questionnaires; sample forms—job applications, ads; crossword puzzles and other word games; excerpts from books and other publications; letters and reports to parents; exercises in specific reading skills; individual mathematics drill sheets; work organization sheets—for teachers and for pupils; weekly progress reports—for teachers and for pupils; evaluation reports—for teachers and for pupils; co-operatively developed plans.

Outcomes of the Program

At the time of writing it is still too early for a thorough, formal evaluation of the program. However, reports from teachers and supervisors clearly indicate that the career-guidance classes are achieving results. The attendance of the classes is better and there is a noticeable cut down in truancy. The behavior of the pupils is much improved as are their study habits; actually the children like their classes and are proud to be in them. As might be expected from the foregoing, reading and mathematics ability is improving. For example, in one class the reading range in October, 1958, was 2.5-5.4; in May, 1959, the range was 3.2-6.0. The mathematics scores in one class ranged from 3.6-6.1 in October, 1958; in May, 1959, the scores ranged from 4.9-6.7. Surely these are gratifying statistics.

Future of the Program

Work in the schools is under the immediate supervision of the principals and the over-all aegis of a steering committee which consists of the author as chairman, the principals of the schools, Charles E. O'Toole of the bureau of educational and vocational

guidance, and Mrs. Willia F. Peace and Dina M. Bleich, who are assigned to the program. This steering committee holds frequent meetings at which they are joined by co-ordinators, guidance counselors, representatives from the New York City Youth Board and the Juvenile Delinquency Evaluation Project, and members of parent and civic groups. At these sessions they evaluate the work done to date, work on administra-

tive problems, and plan for future activities. Budget permitting, present plans include extension of the career-guidance program into other junior high schools, the assignment of additional core co-ordinators and guidance counselors, and further development of curriculum materials. With the population explosion and the increased use of automation in industry, the potential dropouts will need all the help we can give them.



JD—Community Attitudes

There are several prevalent community attitudes which hinder a consistent and rational approach to the prevention, control, and treatment of juvenile delinquency.

One is the attitude that children and youth who engage in anti-social acts are wrong-doers and must be punished. Implicit in this point of view is the assumption that more severe punishment leads to reduced delinquency. Although experience and research show this assumption to be unwarranted, some people in very high places assert it to be true. Some parts of the press encourage such methods as flogging, publication of names of children charged with felonies, and incarceration. Almost any parent who strongly urges acceptance of this policy would be outraged if it were suggested that the same methods be used against his own child.

Few people will admit to hatred of one child, but many will display hatred toward a mass of children in trouble who respond by anti-social behavior. Not many generations ago, mental illness was punished or, at best, treated only by confinement in an asylum. Today, we recognize the need for and increasingly use scientific treatment for the mentally ill. We still are in the "asylum stage" in our attitude toward the juvenile delinquent.

Another attitude is based on the very human search for a way out of frustration. It is the belief that juvenile delinquency has a single cause and, therefore, a simple solution. The devotees of this point of view vary in their prescriptions: better housing; more playgrounds, "put the parents in

jail"; eliminate sensational TV shows, movies, and comic books.

It is an unpleasant fact that delinquent behavior, which stems from so many combinations of casual factors, must be treated and controlled through effective operation and co-ordination of many different kinds of community enterprises. Almost every community institution must be involved in the alleviation of the human problems which we so glibly lump together under the label "juvenile delinquency." Recognition of this fact tries our patience and frustrates our search for easy answers.

A third attitude which hinders progress is the belief that someone else is responsible for this problem and its solution. "If parents—not we, but *other* parents—controlled their children, or understood them, or loved them, the problem would be solved" or "if schools taught better behavior, if police were more alert, if the churches were teaching higher ideals, children and youth would not cause trouble."

Every citizen, every parent, every youth, every teacher, every neighbor shares responsibility for family and community conditions which encourage delinquency.

Likewise, everyone can contribute to individual, family, and community changes which will tend to encourage juvenile adequacy and development of healthy individual and family life.

Let us turn our attention away from what "they" ought to do, toward what *I* and *we* ought to do.—

JOHN McDOWELL in *Education*.

Oratory: Junior-High Style

By JOE M. TOCKMAN

CAN YOU RECALL YOUR REACTIONS when asked to make a public address? Were you uneasy, if not downright queasy? Were you prepared for public speaking?

Relate this obligation to the secondary student, and one can say, "Well, most high schools have speech teachers who can coach the student to address an assembly." But what about the junior-high youngster who is thrust into electioneering speechmaking? Inexperience experiences poignant moments if not traumatic anguish before large audiences. Need it be so?

Several years ago I had a grouping of top-level eighth graders in my English class. At the end of the second semester, by virtue of over-all scholarship and citizenship, at least one third of the group would be campaigning for the offices of the school government. Some would be candidates; others would be campaign managers. Their total *speechmaking* experience was almost nil, and they asked for help. A unit to meet their special needs was imperative. We designed one.

The objects of the unit were: (1) to involve *each* student in the class in the role of an office seeker and campaign manager; (2) to determine what goes into a speech; and

(3) to practice the delivery of a speech in a mock election campaign.

The procedure to involve all posed no problem. Since there were twenty-nine in the class, we could have a slate of fourteen offices. The odd man could serve as chairman. (I acted as chairman pro tem until all the details fell into place.) Titles for political offices were nominated by the class, and voting determined which were to be used. It was felt that humorous titles would allay inhibitions, so the mock offices for which candidates eventually campaigned were such as chief clock watcher, head pencil sharpener, minister to Mars, and so on. Slips, two for each office and one blank for the odd man, were placed into a box and were hand drawn to establish opposing aspirants. Once the slate was established, the same procedure determined the campaign managers.

We listened to recordings of political speeches and orators. Speeches and speakers were discussed. Our particularized needs of content, style, and delivery were determined. A format of content was outlined. Sample speeches were written, delivered, and taped. Playbacks were analyzed. The importance of breath control, enunciation, and the emphasis of punch lines became evident. Remedial advice was given. Bulletin boards were cleared for those who asked to post posters. Campaign managers and candidates paired to write co-ordinated speeches. I was available as consultant and arbiter of good taste.

A schedule of speeches was prepared and posted. Student illness could disrupt the schedule, so all had the same preparation deadline. We proposed to run all speeches through in two days. This would give us time for comment each day.

The speeches were delivered with great

EDITOR'S NOTE

Speechmaking by high school students who are campaigning for sundry offices can be trying for both the deliverer and listener. Take junior-high students and the difficulty is compounded. To avoid such dismal experiences, the author has devised a plan which sounds practical and a lot of fun as well. He is from Colorado Springs, Colorado, where he is a supervisor of secondary education in the public schools.

gusto, and I was delighted when no one froze. Comments were constructive (in the main) and were received with good grace. An election capped all.

This was several years ago. Since then, the delivery of speeches has moved from the classroom to the lectern on the stage of the auditorium. Posture and stage presence have also become vital considerations. Each year

has seen a variation of this unit. The character of each class has differed enough to introduce fresh and stimulating variations. I never know what to expect from year to year, but I do know this: We always welcome the backbone that grows to support our speaking, and those who become involved in school politics say the experience gained in this unit proves valuable.



Constructing the Curriculum

The substance of secondary education constitutes one of the most critical issues in today's great debate over the high school. In our judgment, this controversy will not be resolved satisfactorily until educators learn more about the basic essentials of the process of secondary education; one of these essentials inheres in the legitimate fields of study themselves.

Each field of study worthy of the name has two definite and discriminating characteristics: first, its specialized, disciplined method of inquiry; and, second, its accumulated body of content. Physics, for example, is characterized by a theoretical, analytical method of experimentation and by an accumulation of principles and concepts; history, however, is characterized by a documentary, doubt-removing method of verification and by an acquired fund of historical information. In other words, each discipline has its own strategy for acquiring knowledge as well as its own fund of acquired knowledge. The method of the discipline is its "way of life"; the content is the consequence of its past. Extensive study in a subject area should result, first, in the acquisition of skills, attitudes, and "disciplined" habits necessary for the discovery of new knowledge in the field and, second, in the acquisition of the most useful fund of information possible of mastery within the limits of the time available for the subject.

Our secondary schools are considerably less than successful in achieving this dual purpose. As a

matter of fact, both aspects of the purpose cause some misgivings; educators are no longer sure that either the acquisition of facts or training in the disciplines is a legitimate purpose of the high school. On the other hand, recent shifts in scientific "knowledge" have caused educators to become uncomfortable with so-called facts; consequently, they propose that teaching and learning be geared, not to the acquisition of knowledge, but to the acquisition of skills for gaining knowledge. On the other hand, certain research evidence has so effectively debunked such notions as "discipline for the mind" and "transfer of training" that educators are inclined to be skeptical of the academic disciplines of specific fields of study; as a result, they may be overinclined to fill the secondary curriculum with hybrid courses which retain few of the qualities of academic disciplines and includes bodies of information of unproven worth.

We have here examples of how educators sometimes seize on inconclusive findings and use them in making decisions on curriculum—ill-founded decisions. That old question, "Which learnings are of most importance?" is as critical today as it ever was. Before we can answer the question adequately, we may have to find a fresh set of criteria drawn from the disciplines of the basic fields of study; we may also have to rid ourselves of the notion that "the cafeteria of electives" is necessarily the mark of a good school!—LAWRENCE W. DOWNEY in the *School Review*.

Adolescents Are Human Beings Too

By VIVIAN LITTLE

AS CHAIRMAN OF A HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH DEPARTMENT, I find in my mailbox practically every day an assortment of propaganda designed to persuade me that I am being derelict in my duty if I do not immediately recommend the adoption of various books for our English classes. This situation is scarcely unique, but the element which has impressed me recently has been the virtual unanimity of the sales arguments being used. Almost without exception, I am being urged to adopt these texts because they consist of material "written expressly for and about teen-agers."

I had scarcely begun to ponder the significance of this uniform approach on the part of book publishers when I received a jolt from a youthful colleague. The conversation had turned to college courses which had proved of the greatest value to us as English teachers, and I had confessed that I had never taken a course in "Literature for Adolescents." My colleague looked distressed—or was it horrified? "But how then," she inquired, "do you know what books to teach?"

I shrugged the question off, although I was tempted to ask in return, "How do you know what to give your grandmother for her birthday? Have you had a course in 'Gifts for the Elderly'? And how do you know what to get your husband for supper? Have

you had a course in 'Meals for Insurance Salesmen'?"

The final blow came when I was checking a self-evaluation form for our English department, in preparation for our forthcoming school evaluation. The statement which arrested my attention was the following, on which we were to rate ourselves: "Students are encouraged . . . to read a number of books written for and about adolescents."

I began asking "why?" and I still haven't found any satisfactory answer. *Why* have we done everything in our power to encourage adolescents to consider themselves a species apart from the rest of the human race, isolated by walls of indifference, antagonism, and lack of mutual interests, from both the older and the younger phases of humanity? *Why* must we strengthen them in the belief they are all too ready to embrace—that their problems are somehow completely different from the problems faced by the rest of us? *Why* must we make a concerted effort to narrow their interests down to their own age-range, rather than helping them to grow in their understanding and appreciation of the whole range of human experience?

Your six year old reads as avidly about firemen and balloon sellers and babies as he does about other six year olds. Your ten year old is enthralled with tales of pioneers and pirates. And I, in my mid-forties, have recently derived equal enjoyment from Stella Patterson's *Dear Mad'm*, in which she recounts the lively saga of an eighty-year-old woman's year in the wilderness, and Willard Motley's thoughtful study of troubled youth, *Let No Man Write My Epitaph* (definitely not written especially for teen-agers). *Why* then must our teen-agers be considered unique in their reading interests and habits?

If it is books about adolescents that we are looking for, then why, I wonder, must

EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is an individualist who is starting a minor revolution of her own. She is refusing to treat the teen-agers as though they were a race apart, with respect to literature and other educational matters which fall within her province as chairman of the English department at Minnechaug Regional High School, Wilbraham, Mass.

they be especially written? Shakespeare did a pretty fair job on a couple of teen-age lovers with "parent trouble"; and Jane Austen in *Pride and Prejudice* offers timeless insight into a variety of family problems. If her characters seem too tame for modern tastes, we have the brooding intensity of a youthful Heathcliff in *Wuthering Heights*; while in Shelley's "Ode to the West Wind," sensitive adolescents can be led to recognize the identical restless longings of their own generation.

Of course, the argument can be offered that not all students can appreciate Shakespeare and Austen and Shelley. True—but there are countless other writers who, using the simpler idiom of our own time, have written of youth with vigor and understanding.

Moreover, their works have the added virtue of showing adolescence in its true proportion—as one relatively small segment of the broad panorama of human life. I am thinking of such books as A. J. Cronin's *The Green Years*, Dorothy Canfield's *The Deepening Stream*, John Gunther's *Death Be Not Proud*, Mary Ellen Chase's *Windswept*, and Kathryn Forbes's *Mama's Bank Account*, to make the merest beginning.

Of course, we have a good collection of books in our school library which were "written for and about adolescents." Our thirteen and fourteen year olds read them eagerly; and as long as these books have appeal for them, surely no one is going to object to their reading them. They are invariably wholesome, moral, uplifting little tales, in which innumerable happy coincidences contribute to the inevitable happy solution

of whatever complexities of plot there may be.

However, I hereby go on record that I am *not* going to encourage these students—or any others—to read books of this category. Those who find them satisfying will inevitably read them; but any encouragement that I give will be in the direction of broadening the students' scope, rather than narrowing it. Juniors and seniors, particularly, are close enough to the adult world so that they find its problems, as portrayed in literature, infinitely more satisfying than those of a so-called "young adult" novel, in which the heroine struggles for 225 pages to decide whether to go to the senior prom with the football hero or the class intellectual. Alistair MacLean's gripping *H. M. S. Ulysses* ranks tops among novels read by a group of senior boys in a terminal division, while girls in the same division acclaim *Good-bye, Mr. Chips*. And as for my college preparatory divisions—they have discovered Faulkner and Wolfe and Hemingway and the Russian novelists; they thoroughly enjoy *Exodus* and *Dr. Zhivago*, *Hawaii* and *Advise and Consent*. And personally, I have no intention of suggesting to them that they should be eating Pabulum instead of beef steak!

Let's stop putting our adolescents on a little island apart from the rest of the world. Each age has, of course, its peculiar problems, its special interests. But all of us are more alike than we are different. Let's invite our teen-agers back into the human race! And then let's give them a chance to grow in their understanding of *all* ages—not merely their own.



Tasks of teachers have not been catalogued in order of their importance. Teachers have an apprehension that they spend an inordinate amount of time on tasks relatively wasteful of their talents and their training. Little has been done positively to identify the organization of a school which would maximize the use of these talents and the time available to teachers to perform appropriate professional tasks.—DWIGHT W. ALLEN and ROBERT B. MOORE in *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

BOOK REVIEWS

Social Studies in Secondary Schools—Curriculum and Methods by DOROTHY MCCLURE FRASER and EDITH WEST. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1961. 476 pages. \$6.50.

Why do teachers teach the way they do? Why do chosen methods seldom change, as the teacher becomes more proficient in his dealings with the learning situation? Why do school children vote consistently that their social studies classes are the ones they dread most? These questions, as well as many others, have been answered in this refreshing book by Fraser and West. They suggest that social studies teachers often teach poorly because they know of no better way to approach the situation. To all these who need help in the "how" of teaching, I recommend this book. Furthermore, I suggest that all those who consider themselves to be social studies teachers read this book and try some of the techniques suggested.

As a former social studies teacher, particularly in the core curriculum, I feel the material in chap. viii, "Discussion and Group Procedures," will be of tremendous value to the teacher who decides to teach the social studies in a social situation.

Too often social studies teachers rely upon a textbook as a complete method for turning adolescents into more mature individuals. The authors have reminded the teacher that in the social studies, social skills such as listening, writing, and speaking take precedence over the recitation of information.

Coinciding with this idea of what is vital in social studies teaching is the excellent chapter (xvi) which guides the social studies teacher toward an attitude in evaluation of pupil growth. It is suggested that we remember to evaluate growth in command of skills, expansion of interest, and the development of desirable appreciations and attitudes.

One area that currently seems to fascinate writers of textbooks on methods of teaching is "critical thinking." True to the current trend, the authors have included a chapter concerning this phase of teaching, but with the exception that their presentation makes sense.

The authors present a logical sequence of "how" this social skill can be taught. They do this by suggesting that pupils be given the opportunity to undertake the following learning tasks: evaluating information, determining rele-

vance of material, and evaluating reliability of authors. Along with these occur differentiating fact and opinion, examining assumptions, checking data, detecting inconsistencies, and drawing conclusions.

This book would be invaluable for the library of any teacher of social studies because of its realistic approach to the problem of preparing youth for adjustment to the complexities of modern society.

CLARENCE HARVEY, JR.

Attitudes Toward English Teaching by JOSEPH MERSAND. Philadelphia: Chilton Co., 1961, 363 pages, \$4.00.

Carefully unedited bits and pieces from 1,250 solicited opinions about the effectiveness of current English instruction make up this volume. If the result is unsatisfying, the blame probably lies with inappropriate research techniques and prescribed editorial policy rather than with the compiler who, at regular intervals, makes efforts to organize and interpret, and who occasionally worries about the validity of the data he handles. The whole business has the cachet of a consumer research poll without its utility. It calls to mind W. H. Auden's admonition that humanists should eschew pseudoscientific procedures:

Thou shalt not sit
With statisticians nor commit
A social science.

From the profusion of conflicting impressions recorded, enough evidence emerges to justify one generalization: optimism about the efficacy of English teaching is inversely proportional to proximity to the classroom and the end product. Educational administrators, consultants, supervisors and other nonclassroom personnel are more sanguine than public school teachers, who, in turn, are considerably more satisfied than college teachers. Business executives presumably insulated from the worst, find some improvement in instruction; magazine editors, on the other hand, almost universally deplore the incompetence of recent graduates. Curiously enough, the editors of educational magazines find the competence of recent graduates "considerably increased." About one-half the volume records, in more detail than many readers will wish for, figures from 863 librarians, bookstore managers, and publishers prov-

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ing that more books are now circulated and bought than ever before and the universal opinion that reading taste has improved. The quantitative evidence is too unrefined to be useful; the opinions may be taken for what they are worth.

Happily, almost everyone agrees on steps to be taken to improve English teaching: free competent teachers from unrealistic classroom and extracurricular loads to teach the essential fundamentals—reading and writing.

JOSEPH N. SATTERWHITE

The Teacher in Curriculum Making by JOSEPH LEESE, KENNETH FRASURE, and MAURITZ JOHNSON, JR. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1961. 497 pages, \$5.50.

According to the authors of *The Teacher in Curriculum Making* the central goal of curriculum development is the provision of better experiences for those who go to school. So far the authors are following the path trod by most writers in the curriculum field.

"But," say the authors, "in the final analysis the key people in determining what does happen to pupils are the teachers." At this point the writers differ from a great many other writers on curriculum who often not only fail

to acknowledge the teacher's central role in making any curriculum work but often also neglect to mention the teacher at all.

To Leese and his coauthors, then, "There is no good curriculum regardless of the organization, the subjects offered, or the content selected, until what the pupil does with and under the direction of the teacher results in positive, practical and permanent learning."

Part I of the text is devoted to enlarging this point of view. Part II provides a rather detailed account of the reasons teachers resist attempts to modify the curriculum or to experiment with new ideas. This section will be a good review for curriculum co-ordinators and helpful to teachers who wish to understand themselves.

Parts III and IV are concerned with "Individual Action for Better Experience" and "Working with Others for Improvement." These sections are competently handled and while there is little that is new, the material is useful.

The contribution of the authors is simply that they succeeded rather well in doing what they set out to do: bring into sharp focus the role of the teacher in curriculum development.

JOHN M. MICKELSON

Modern Fundamentals of Algebra and Trigonometry by HENRY SHARP, JR. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961. 340 pages, \$6.50.

In his treatment of the topics usually found separately in algebra and trigonometry, Sharp has sought to bind them "together here by three fundamental mathematical concepts: number, set, and function." In so doing he has "made an attempt to unify the usual material in elementary analysis by emphasizing . . . ideas set in modern perspective."

The author has made a thorough effort to include the properties of numbers, and the notions of both the set and the function throughout his text. His definition of a function "as a set of ordered pairs such that if (a, b) and (a, c) belong to the set, then $b = c$ " is used in defining equations of condition and of identity (chap. ii); in defining the trigonometric functions of real numbers (chap. iii); and in describing polynomials of degree n (chap. iv). He has effectively used the concepts of number, set, and function as an integral part of his presentation and has not just made references to them. The arrangement of the topics throughout the book definitely shows the influence of modern algebra upon the elementary

operations with algebraic expressions. The author introduces in chap. vi a ratio known as the difference quotient from which he finds the slope of any function at a particular value r , that is, "corresponding to any real number r the ratio of the increments $\frac{f(r+h) - f(r)}{h}$ "

is called the difference quotient for the function f , at r , induced by h ." From this, the treatment of approximate roots by Newton's method develops. It may be surprising that he does not call this a derivative at any time.

The definition-theorem presentation of the material is effective and consistent with the current trend. The examples used to illustrate the definitions and uses of the theorems are well chosen and sufficient in number to allow for independent study by most students. Sets have been used consistently to explain the domain and range of functions and to describe solutions of equations. The treatment of inequalities is included along with equalities.

In his treatment of computation with approximate numbers the author seems to imply that significant digits and the number of decimal places are the same, for he gives a rule (No. 2, p. 76) which talks of accuracy and then uses decimal places to determine where to



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round off. It is my understanding that significant digits determine accuracy while decimal places indicate precision. On page 148 there seems to be a misprint: " $\theta = \frac{2\pi}{3} (120^\circ)$ ". What

is implied by the context is $\theta = \frac{2\pi}{3}$ or 120° ,

not times 120° . After the introduction of complex numbers as an extension of the solutions of the general quadratic equation (chap. iv), there are no exercises to be solved that have complex number roots of the form $a + bi$, where $b \neq 0$. There is no bibliography at the end of each chapter or at the end of the text suggesting topics or books for further study by the student as some recent books have done.

The book is definitely not entirely modern or traditional. This might be an advantage or a disadvantage depending upon the teacher's point of view. Apart from the first-year college course for which it was written, this book would serve well as an introduction to the modern topics for seniors in high school following the traditional three-year background of two years of algebra and one year of plane geometry.

LOUIS M. EDWARDS

Books Received

The American Secondary School by L. O. TAYLOR, DON R. McMAHILL, and BOB L. TAYLOR. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1960. 492 pages, \$5.50.

Effective Reading in Science, a Handbook for Secondary Teachers by DAVID L. SHEPHERD. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Co., 1960. 128 pages, \$1.05.

Effective Reading in the Social Studies, a Handbook for Secondary Teachers by DAVID L. SHEPHERD. Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson and Co., 1960. 157 pages, \$1.65.

Flying Mary O'Connor by MARY O'CONNOR. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1961. 144 pages, \$2.50.

The Gifted: Educational Resources (Sargent Handbook Series). Boston: Porter Sargent, Publisher, 1961. 285 pages, \$4.00.

Humorous English (a Guide to Comic Usage, Jocular Speech and Writing, and Witty Grammar) by EVAN ESAR. New York: Horizon Press, 1961. 318 pages, \$4.95.

Integrated Teaching Materials by R. MURRAY THOMAS and SHERMAN G. SWARTOUT. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., Inc., 1960. 545 pages, \$6.75.

Posture and Figure Control Through Physical Education by BLANCHE J. DRURY. Palo Alto, Calif.: National Press Publications, 1961. 96 pages, \$3.00 (soft cover).

Practical Business Psychology (3d ed.) by DONALD A. LAIRD and ELEANOR LAIRD. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961. 442 pages, \$5.75.

Quality Science for Secondary Schools prepared by DONALD G. DECKER et al., Committee of the National Science Teachers Association. Washington 6, D.C.: National Science Teachers Association (1201 Sixteenth St., N.W.), 1960. 210 pages, \$3.00.

Paperbounds Received

From PRENTICE-HALL, INC., Englewood Cliffs, N.J.:

English Masterpieces (2d ed.), MAYNARD MACK, General Ed. Vol. I, *The Age of Chaucer* edited by WILLIAM FROST, 424 pages; Vol. II, *Elizabethan Drama* edited by LEONARD DEAN, 364 pages; Vol. III, *Renaissance Poetry* edited by LEONARD DEAN, 342 pages; Vol. IV, *Milton* edited by MAYNARD MACK, 346 pages; Vol. V, *The Augustans* edited by MAYNARD MACK, 432 pages; Vol. VI, *Romantic and Victorian Poetry* edited by WILLIAM FROST, 364 pages; Vol. VII, *Modern Poetry* edited by MAYNARD MACK, LEONARD DEAN, and WILLIAM FROST, 383 pages. \$1.95 each, soft covers.

From NEW AMERICAN LIBRARY OF WORLD LITERATURE, INC., 501 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.:

The Individual and the Universe by A. C. B. Lovell, 1961. 126 pages, 50 cents.
The Life of Abraham Lincoln by Stefan Lorant, 1961. 256 pages, 75 cents.
Night Flight by Antoine de Saint-Exupery, 1961. 128 pages, 50 cents.

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Mr. Edwards is a teacher of college preparatory mathematics at Edgewater High School, Orlando, Florida.

Mr. Harvey is director of secondary-student teaching, Fairmont State College, West Virginia.

Dr. Mickelson is professor of secondary education, Temple University, Philadelphia.

Dr. Satterwhite is associate professor of English, Ball State Teachers College, Indiana.

THE HUMANITIES TODAY

Newspaper Censorship

Last July, in a curious display of moralizing, the editors of the *Detroit News* ("The Home Newspaper") decided that the *Li'l Abner* comic strip appearing on Sundays was too risqué for their family of readers. *Abner* was excluded for a month, until a new story line appeared, and *Blondie* was moved up to the front page of the comic supplement.

The explanation made by the *News* to its readers was notably vague, as though the editors felt that to refer specifically to the indecent element might in itself be an indecency. One was left to draw two inferences: there had been pressure from the community, and the costume of a bikini-clad heroine probably caused the censorship. Readers soon wrote letters containing remarks which generally follow actions of this sort. Liberals complained in well-reasoned statements about abridgments of their freedoms. Moralists, on the other hand, applauded the *News* for safeguarding the moral climate of the community. Al Capp, the cartoonist, sent along an awfully humble note in which he chastised himself for slipping into the excesses of his youth by drawing more "convolutions" than he ought to have drawn.

Over the years *Li'l Abner* has been deleted more than once from newspapers which buy the strip from the United Feature Syndicate. In a few of these instances Mr. Capp has leaped across the line between satire and ridicule, thus tending to justify *Abner's* removal. The summer incident in Detroit, however, would make it seem that the strip was purged to appease the most superficial of moralizers, the "dermatophobes."

When Mr. Capp "created" *Li'l Abner*, he hit upon two ways of making his strip stand out visually on pages where competing comics had a lookalike quality. One was the occasional use of boldface lettering in the dialogue balloons. The other was the use of attractive, shapely girls. Regardless of the apparel they were depicted in, these girls seemed to be, in general, well-proportioned and similar. Thus the "Al Capp Girl" who appeared in a floor-length dress might be quite as provocative as the one appearing in a tennis outfit. Granting for a moment the incredible proposition that an innocent reader might be seduced by a two-dimensional creature from Dogpatch or Slobberia, it

seems to me that the Al Capp Girl—not minor changes in the costume she wears—would be responsible. A little bit more of what passes for flesh color in comics hardly changes the acceptable to the suggestive.

However, my chief reasons for questioning the sincerity of the *News* in this action deal with other material in the paper. Within its pages the *News* delivers to my home two and sometimes three burlesque show advertisements each day. Unlike the *Li'l Abner* comic, which endeavors to give readers a laugh in the context of their home environment (or wherever they happen to be reading it), these ads seek to lure readers of "The Home Newspaper" to a dirty show. The advertisements not uncommonly display figures more scantily dressed than Mr. Capp's young lady. They promise "Dynamic!" "Bold!" "Intimate!" "Exotic!" "Exciting!" "Star-rific!" entertainment to those who wish to sample it. Furthermore, the names of the ladies of the cast often include cheap puns or alternate spellings of vulgarisms. At best, the burlesque advertisements tend to make the *News's* position on censorship ambivalent since their ultimate influence is more corroding than that of any comic strip.

Nor do I believe that any newspaper which touts its catering to familial virtue can throw many stones as long as Dorothy Kilgallen is listed among its columnists. Miss Dorothy dwells on human frailties. Feuds, lawsuits, marital rifts, illnesses, plugs for both somebodies and nobodies, robberies, mentions of huge sums of money, and undocumented political pronouncements dot Miss Dorothy's copy. An average month will include references to at least fifteen estrangements, divorces, first husbands, ex-wives, and so on. These are mixed in with the names of our cultural heroes from the entertainment industry. The context of the column is so heavily negative that when a new "romance" is mentioned, the couple (or trio) in question seem to be only future grist for the divorce mill.

During the month of May, Miss Kilgallen's copy included three separate observations on former child movie stars who were about to be filmed in their first sexy bedroom scenes, news of a party for the Kennedys that flopped, some comments on tension between Queen Elizabeth and Princess Margaret, a description of King Farouk's new inamoratas, a memo to playgirls that a playboy son of Trujillo was in town, and

similar tidbits that tend to denigrate both the notable and the notorious.

Rather evidently, this sort of gossip appeals to the baser instincts of people. The prying reader who savors such a column is the moral equivalent of the sensation hunter who goes to the Indianapolis 500-mile race hoping to see a serious accident. He thrives on scandal.

The *Detroit News*, which has a superlative sports section and a record of active participation in community projects for teen-agers, must look beyond the midrifts of Al Capp's heroines if it sincerely wishes to improve the minds and morals of its readers.

H.B.M.

SCREENINGS

Exodus

This film, which is a chronicle of the rebirth of Israel, has the disadvantage customarily experienced by similar films which are based on historical novels. The viewers who have learned their history are severely critical of the producer and the director. Each in his own mind would have "done it this way."

The film portrayal of this novel also had two distinctly different types of viewers. One group possesses the background of ethnic relationship to the people in the story; the other probably consists of a vast number of readers of the novel who seek to find both a source of entertainment and a basis for comparison with the novel. The latter group regards the tale and portrayal more critically.

The teacher of history and his students may find *Exodus* as significant as their classroom discussion and study prior to their visit to the theater. In most courses of world history, the rebirth of Israel has limited but important significance. Student evaluations of the production will be directly related to their study as well as their prior reading of the novel. The producer is, at least, assured of a successful conversation piece which will endure as long as the run of the film. The teacher should be concerned with the current appeal of the film as a visual aid as well as with the future usefulness of it as a reference in the light of present-day Israel.

The story opens on the island of Cyprus, where shiploads of unwelcome refugees from Hitler's Germany have disembarked and been reconcentrated by the British. It must be noted that the supervision of the refugees was handled by Israeli personnel. At this point we are

introduced to the principals of the story: Ralph Richardson as General Sutherland, Peter Lawford as Major Caldwell, Eva Marie Saint as Kitty Fremont, and Paul Newman as Ari Ben Canaan. Although readers of the novel visualized their own selections for the latter role, Mr. Preminger selected Paul Newman, a younger man, for the lead. The history student need not be concerned with such minor details.

The scenes in the harbor of Famagusta, the renaming of the *Olympia* as the *Exodus*, establish firmly the significance of the daring, historic project. The hunger strike aboard the *Exodus*, although not so forcefully portrayed as it was in the novel, gets its point across. The sympathetic efforts of both Kitty Fremont and General Sutherland effectuate the sailing of the crowded ship. The "old tub" bearing its load of happy men, women, and children sails into Haifa Harbor amid cheers. These are moving moments comparable with similar denouements of modern history.

The rest of the film relates the differences in approach and tactics by the Haganah and Irgun forces in countering the British forces in Palestine. Here the film becomes a succession of episodes which have been documented by history.

To this reviewer, who attended the United Nations Assembly session at Flushing Meadows, Queens, New York, on a cold day in November, 1947, in order to observe the voting process, the announcement by Ari's father, Barak (Lee J. Cobb), was an interesting moment for recollection.

The scenery, filmed in Panavision, was reality, unsimulated. *Ipsē dixit*. The most fascinating sequence was the detail with which the united Haganah and Irgun groups prepared and executed their plan to free the imprisoned Irgun leader, Akiva (David Opatoshu), Dov Landau (Sal Mineo), and others from Acre prison. The action here holds rapt attention. The story closes after several heartbreaks for Kitty and Dov with the Israeli forces riding off to meet the invading Arabs. The reader of the novel is reminded that the film has run for three hours and thirty minutes. His knowledge of events in the progress of the state of Israel should compensate for the sudden finale.

The film rates special attention and recommendation as a visualization of an important segment of modern history. Israel's progress in world affairs since its rebirth has been remarkable, likening this period to similar periods in American revolutionary history and to recent changes in Africa under the aegis of the United Nations.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

(1) Locate on your map (Europe, the Mediterranean area or the world) each of the following: (a) the Mediterranean Sea, (b) the island of Cyprus and its position and status, (c) the area which was Palestine and the land which now comprises the state of Israel.

(2) Trace, in outline, the history of the state of Israel from its ancient beginnings to its present status as a free democratic nation.

(3) Draw historic parallels between the historic achievements of present-day Israel with that of the United States and other independent nations. Include, among the similarities, the type of leaders, their statements of principles, their stated aims, and methods of attaining them, and their failures or successes, to date.

(4) If you have read Uris' novel, on which the film is based, how would you have emphasized certain portions or rewritten the script? Since this is a matter of judgment between Mr. Preminger and you, justify your recommendations.

(5) Which of the scenes or portions of dialogue impressed you most during the progress of the film? If you require an aid to recall, a study guide prepared by three clergymen, Rabbi Rivkin, Father Ford, and the Rev. Quick is available to you, on written request, from the Exodus Office, United Artists, 729 Seventh Ave., New York, N.Y.

JACK W. ENTIN
Forest Hills (N.Y.) High School

POEMS FOR STUDY

WINTER

When icicles hang t, the wall,
And Dick the shepherd blows his nail,
And Tom bears logs into the hall,
And milk comes frozen home in pail,
When blood is nipped and ways be foul,
Then nightly sings the staring owl,
Tu-whit, tu-who! a merry note,
While greasy Joan doth keel the pot.

When all aloud the wind doth blow,
And coughing drowns the parson's saw,
And birds sit brooding in the snow,
And Marian's nose looks red and raw,
When roasted crabs hiss in the bowl,
Then nightly sings the staring owl,
Tu-whit, tu-who! a merry note,
While greasy Joan doth keel the pot.

—From *Love's Labour's Lost*
WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE

I flatly tell my students that this is the best seasonal song in the language. It's good for the soul to be dogmatic once in a while, even if you're wrong. The poem is described as "little" in Brooks and Warren's *Understanding Poetry*. I take it this means "short." Many of our great poems are even littler than this. This song is a fine example of the art that conceals art—on first glance, it appears to be merely a listing of certain features of the season, and on final examination, it isn't much more than that. But somehow, our Shakespeare, by an uncanny arrangement and selection of details, has taken us right into the heart of the season. He makes us see and feel; he really creates an atmosphere.

Now for contrast, a poem about three hundred years newer, by another William—William Morris. This too is a "little" poem, originally part of the lengthy *Earthly Paradise*, but it can stand alone like Shakespeare's song.

NOVEMBER

Are thine eyes weary? Is thy heart too sick.
To struggle any more with doubt and thought,
Whose formless veil draws darkening now and thick
Across thee, e'en as smoke-tinged mist-wreaths
brought
Down a fair dale to make it blind and nought?
Art thou so weary that no world there seems
Beyond these four walls, hung with pain and
dreams?

Look out upon the real world, where the moon
Half-way 'twixt root and crown of these high
trees,
Turns the dead midnight into dreamy noon,
Silent and full of wonders, for the breeze
Died at the sunset, and no images,
No hopes of day, are left in sky or earth—
Is it not fair, and of most wondrous worth?

Yea, I have looked, and seen November there;
The changeless seal of change it seemed to be,
Fair death of things that, living once, were fair;
Bright sign of loneliness too great for me,
Strange image of the dread eternity,
In whose void patience how can these have part,
These outstretched feverish hands, this restless
heart?

This poem too is highly seasonal and meteorological. It's about weather conditions, but less objective than our first poem, more about a state of mind induced or exacerbated by the deadness of November. Shakespeare's poem is for anyone, anywhere—one requires no "intel-

lect" to get it—there is no intellection, really, in it; it is sensual in the best sense. Morris' poem, on the other hand, suggests a malaise that is modern: "Is thy heart too sick to struggle any more with doubt and thought?"

It need hardly be pointed out that the poem is a dialogue. The first speaker addresses a disenchanted person (not literally sick, I believe), who has, so to speak, given up. He urges him to "look out upon the real world," to forget the confinement of "four walls, hung with pain and dreams." The real world, for the interlocutor, even at this dead season, is full of wonders—"fair and of most wondrous worth."

But the appeal is fruitless. The person addressed is not to be consoled. He has looked out upon the "real" world of November and the signs of loneliness, the image of dread eternity he has seen there, are too much for him. There is no comfort for his restless heart. He does not see that November too is "fair and of most wondrous worth."

We do not need to know who the speaker is, or whom he addresses. We know that the first is in a healthy, positive frame of mind (a regular Norman Vincent Peale type?), the second, neurasthenic, negative. The first finds beauty in the sterile months, the second sees only the foreshadowing of a grey eternity. And so, I think, are we divided, most humans. Morris has illustrated pointedly here, not only two types of people but two moods to which we are all individually susceptible. I know from experience that one can listen to a piece of music at a certain time, and be thrilled and lost, and hearing it twenty-four hours later, find it not only distasteful, but painful. Some faint chemistry in the psyche, or in the digestion, can do this. When the sickness goes deep, neither November nor June is fair.

Shakespeare (bless him) has given us the happy picture. Things are tough all over in winter, but in his poem there is life. The icicles are pretty, there is a fire being made up, Joan is skimming the grease off the pot, and there is hot food in prospect, the crab apples are hissing in the bowl. It is a vital, cheerful, Currier-and-Ives sort of thing. Who gives a hoot about the owl's "merry" note? If the milk is slightly frozen en route from the barn, its vitamins are not impaired.

But what about this gloomy, self-pitying chap in Morris' poem? Already in November (not yet the depth of winter) he is complaining about the deadness of things, his feverish hands, and dread images of eternity. I like the interrogator, the man who finds beauty in all sea-

sons. He can be no other than Morris himself, a man of great vitality and compassion, this last the indispensable attribute of all great writers. He makes us feel for the "invalid," the disturbed second persona in the poem who is sick with doubt and thought, and aesthetically incapacitated for November.

These are, indeed, two great "little" poems. They do what poetry is supposed to do. Need I explain what that is?

WILLIAM ROSS CLARK
University of Connecticut

IN PRINT

Bargain Book

The Violent Bear It Away by FLANNERY O'CONNOR. New York: New American Library of World Literature, Inc. (Signet), 1961. 160 pages, 50 cents.

Somewhere beneath the drooping bib overalls, beneath the sweat-soaked slouch hat, and within the battered shoes of a Flannery O'Connor character there lies a Jonah, or an Elijah, or a Jeremiah. Hazel Motes and Enoch Emery of *Wise Blood* go through experience in a kind of trance as they fulfill their mission as prophets. In a similar fashion young Francis Tarwater of *The Violent Bear It Away* takes up the burden of his dead uncle and manufactures his own private apocalypse. The story seems to shrink from the possibility that it might touch a cliché, and Miss O'Connor presents episode after episode with a distortion characteristic of dreams. Like the speaker in the poet Shelley's "The Indian Serenade," the characters in the novel go places and do things without ever quite realizing why or how. Francis Tarwater knows that he must baptize his cousin Bishop Rayber, but he does not know why, or how, or what compels him.

The novel climaxes with Francis Tarwater drowning his cousin and then returning to the ruins of his dead uncle's shack, where he sets the woods ablaze, experiences a vision, and heads once again toward the city. The glazed emotional twilight through which Miss O'Connor moves her characters reveals just enough to let the reader see what takes place without quite making clear the psychological necessities that provoke the action. Most of the people in the book talk with the stunned wonder of men who have looked far into regions where men have no right to look.

FREDERICK S. KILEY
Trenton State College

AUDIO-VISUAL NEWS

Educational Television

USES FOR EDUCATIONAL TV

(1) Magnification, allowing pupils to see small objects, not ordinarily visible while they are in their seats.

(2) Larger audience, allowing one teacher to teach more than the usual number of pupils at one time, in one or several rooms.

(3) More efficient use of teacher strengths, leading to team teaching, in which several teachers work together, each taking a part of the teaching load.

(4) Better lesson preparation since the teacher is actually before the class less hours per week, allowing him to spend more time in preparation.

many classrooms, providing experiences which teachers in some instances have difficulty providing. It can, therefore, extend certain valuable experiences heretofore available only to a few.

(8) Its ability to provide close-ups. It becomes an excellent demonstration magnifier. Gives every student a front-row seat.

(9) Its mobility. ("I can move in for a closer look, swing around for a better look, back away for a broader look.")

(10) Its ability to transmit sound and picture simultaneously as they are created.

(11) Its visual characteristics and requirements make it possible and necessary to use a wide variety of visual teaching materials and resources in any effective presentation.

(12) It requires well-organized presentations.

(13) It promotes a team approach to teaching.

TYPES OF MATERIALS SUITABLE FOR EDUCATIONAL TV

Objects, models, dioramas, maps, globes, printed page, flat pictures, charts, chalkboard, magnetic board, slides, transparencies, films, and filmstrips.

STRENGTHS OF TELEVISION AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL TOOL*

(1) Its immediacy—a minimum of delay is required in dissemination of information.

(2) Its ability to reach large numbers of individuals instantly.

(3) Its dramatic power—and consequent ability to stimulate and motivate learning.

(4) Its distribution system gives wide coverage for its message, reaching into homes and hospitals, as well as schools, churches, and industries, with consequent ability to be used as an educational tool for adults in their own homes and for persons of all ages who are homebound or hospitalized. It opens up avenues of programming for each of these groups. It is not limited to school boundaries.

(5) Its intimacy—has the ability to make you feel the television instructor is talking "just to you."

(6) Its ability to focus attention of the viewer on subject at hand.

(7) Its ability as a means of communication to share outstanding teachers and resources with

LIMITATIONS OF TELEVISION AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL TOOL*

(1) Its rate is constant. It cannot be speeded up for the rapid learner and slowed down for the slower. Difficult to take care of individual differences.

(2) It is limited to a single performance, unless it is recorded for reshowing later or unless the original performance is duplicated.

(3) Its initial cost is relatively high compared to most instructional tools.

(4) The size of its screen is small, making viewing difficult for large groups unless multiple receivers are provided.

(5) It is primarily a one-way communications channel, transmitting its message in one direction, from one point to another.

(6) It cannot take into account readiness to learn. Viewers may not be ready for a specific experience.

(7) Difficult to adapt to needs and interests of specific groups of learners.

(8) Difficulty of overcoming rigid time scheduling of programs for in-school uses.

(9) Breeds too much standardization and uniformity of instruction and not enough creativity and individuality.

(10) Tends to encourage too much dependence on the television teacher by the classroom teacher, robbing him of individual initiative and control of his own classroom situation.

(11) Has limited feed-back qualities. Interaction between television teacher and students difficult to achieve.

*Harold Wigren, Houston Public Schools.

(12) Tendency to focus on teacher rather than on learner.

(13) Loss of personal contact between teacher and pupils.

(14) Better adapted to mass instruction than to individual or group learning.

(15) Inability to assess reactions of audience through observation while program progresses, as classroom teacher is able to do as he teaches.

(16) Makes for limited participation by students during the lesson. Tends to develop watchers (spectators) rather than learners (participants).

(17) Deprives the classroom teacher of freedom in selecting experiences (especially true when programs are required viewing).

(18) Pacing of instructor difficult to gear to viewing groups.

TYPES OF TELEVISION INSTALLATIONS

One Room—Commercial Channels. The simplest type of installation for commercial channels is to have one room equipped with a television set and bring all classes to that room when they desire to see a program. The equipment needed is a TV receiver for every twenty viewers.

With small classes, one receiver might accommodate one class, although two receivers would be better. With one or two receivers, one outside antenna with lead-in would be needed. If this room were to be expanded so that more than one class might view the program, additional receivers would be needed, with an antenna for each two receivers. If one desires to keep down the number of antennas, it is possible to install a master antenna with an amplifier for an unlimited number of receivers. In some locations it is possible to obtain fair reception with an inside antenna (rabbit ears). If the TV sets are in use for any major portion of a day, one viewing area (room, auditorium, library, cafeteria, gym) is tied up for that part of the day while viewing takes place. If the TV set is for the use of only one teacher in a self-contained class, this problem does not exist.

Advantages of the one-room commercial channel installation are: (1) simplicity and ease of installation, (2) lower cost, (3) entirely satisfactory for one teacher in a self-contained room, (4) may be adequate for an entire school, especially if the viewing room can be made available to all.

Disadvantages: (1) If the installation is made in one classroom, it would be impractical for that teacher to switch her classroom with every other teacher who wishes to view programs dur-

ing the day, if any major use is made of the TV. (2) If the installation is made in some other area of the school, that area is tied up for a major portion of the day. (3) Students must move to the viewing area, usually for a twenty-to thirty-minute program and then return to their regular classroom, usually wasting five to ten minutes in this process. (4) Students tend to think the TV lesson is just for entertainment when they move to a viewing area, especially if several groups join together in the area. It is best to avoid this situation that has caused many problems in other types of projected materials.

Costs: Minimum Standards set, 23-inch receiver, \$150 each; special school Standards receiver, 24 inch, \$200-300 each; antenna and installation, \$50 each; booster amplifier (three to four sets), \$100 each; master antenna and amplifier (more than four sets), \$150-\$250 each channel; mobile stand, \$30 each.

Several Rooms—Commercial Channels. The problem of several rooms receiving TV at the same time involves an extension of the equipment and facilities needed for one classroom. If no more than four outlets are desired, the simplest method is to add additional outside antennas and connect no more than two sets to each outside antenna. If more than four outlets are desired, serious consideration should be given to installing a master antenna and amplifiers for each VHF and UHF channel desired. A master antenna is really several antennas all mounted together—one antenna for each channel. With this type of arrangement there is no limit to the number of receivers that may be attached since the strength of the signal is determined by the amplifiers. Distribution lines from the amplifiers may be extended throughout the building or buildings. This type of installation is adaptable to closed-circuit television.

Advantages of the several-room type of installation are: (1) cheaper than wiring an entire building; (2) less disturbance for teachers and pupils than if TV is in only one room; (3) if master antennas and amplifiers are used, closed-circuit TV is easily available in these several rooms.

Disadvantages: (1) more costly than a single-room installation, (2) less satisfactory than outlets in each room.

Costs: Costs for multiple pieces of equipment may be found by reference to the costs section for one-room installations. In addition, wiring costs \$50 per outlet.

One room or several rooms—commercial channels and closed circuit. The discussion of com-

mercial channels for one room or several rooms has been considered in the preceding sections. Therefore, this section will be concerned only with the addition of closed-circuit TV to commercial channels.

For use limited to two or three rooms, probably the closed-circuit TV should be made very portable. Cables would be temporary. Receivers and camera would be mobile. If provision has been made for commercial channels (VHF), the receivers may need an attachment to allow video signals to be received directly from the TV camera. However, some cameras convert directly to radio-frequency signals, so do not require any attachment. No special amplification will be needed for up to several thousand feet.

If the camera used modulates to radio frequency, the program would be sent out over any of the unused channels provided the receivers are connected to an antenna. If the receivers are disconnected from the antenna, any of the channels may be used for the closed-circuit program. Assuming that temporary wiring is being used (not installed in the walls), the camera would be connected only to the few receivers desiring to see the program. When a different audience is to be served, the entire equipment—camera, receivers, and cables—would be moved to another location. A microphone and amplifier would be set up for the sound and sent over separate wires to the receivers. If a mixer (modulating sound on RF carrier) is purchased, the use of a separate set of wires is unnecessary. More important, with a mixer each receiver would provide its own sound amplification, so that the sound would be adjustable and loud enough no matter how many receivers are connected.

If a master antenna with amplifiers has been installed, the video and audio signals could be sent to the head end (building amplifier) over separate wires, or by use of a mixer over the same wires. These would then be sent out using a radio frequency on one of the unused channels on the TV set or by turning off one commercial channel and using that channel for the closed-circuit program. As one can see, this allows some rooms to use commercial programs and other rooms to use closed-circuit TV. With the addition of another camera or a film projector-camera chain, another closed-circuit TV program could be sent over still another channel to a different group of rooms.

The uses of this type of equipment are fairly obvious. In an individual classroom the TV camera would be used for magnification of objects. With additional equipment this could be

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Advantages of closed-circuit TV in addition to commercial channels: (1) Control of programs is within the building. (2) Programs can be presented at the time when classes are ready for them. (3) Local talent can be utilized. (4) Several teachers in a building can work together as a team. (5) The size of the teacher's audience can be increased.

Disadvantages: (1) "Talk back" by pupils hard to provide in television. (2) Pupils may tend to become "passive lookers," rather than learners. (3) TV cameras and related equipment are relatively expensive.

Costs: Minimum Standards receiver (23 inch) \$150 each; special school Standards receiver (24 inch) \$200-300 each; mobile stand, \$30 each; camera-Vidicon (industrial type) \$595-1,795; zoom lens, \$435; Standard, wide-angle, telephoto, and close-up lenses, \$250; tripod and dolly, \$200-500; coaxial cables (100 feet), \$16 each; sound system, \$250; audio and video mixer, \$500.

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